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The Imperial Gazetteer of India.

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VOLUME VIII.

KARENS TO MADNÁGARH.

SECOND EDITION.

TRÜBNER & CO., LONDON, 1886.


THE INDIAN EMPIRE
Prepared for Dr W. W. Hunter's
IMPERIAL GAZETTEER OF INDIA
Scale 265 miles = to 1 inch
REFERENCES
British Territory colored .... Pink
Dependent & Subordinate Native States ... Yellow
Independent States .... Green
Railways opened
Do not opened
Roads
The numerals denote the height above sea level in feet.
This Map is intended only to exhibit the principal places, chief rivers &c. in India.
Long. E. of Greenwich
BAY OF BENGAL
ARABIAN SEA
INDIAN OCEAN
Tropic of Cancer
Engraved by W. & A. K. Johnston, Edinburgh & London.

IMPERIAL GAZETTEER

OF

INDIA.

VOLUME VIII.

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fearful trackless region where the sands rolled before the wind like the waves of the sea.' Again, from Northern China, perhaps about the second century A.D., when they settled somewhere near Ava. And, lastly, about the fifth or sixth century A.D., when they came southward and spread over the mountains between the Irawadi, the Salwín, and the Meinam, as far south as the seaboard. Here they have since remained, a wild uncivilised race of mountaineers, broken up into many petty clans and communities, jealous of and ceaselessly at war with each other. Surrounded by Buddhist nations, they have retained their primitive nature-worship, leavened with singular traces of a higher but forgotten faith.

One feature that distinguishes the Karens from the peoples around them is a tradition of their former possession of a more theistic religion than the present worship of the spirits of nature, and the embodiment of that religion in writings now lost. They are said to have traditions of the creation and fall of man, coinciding minutely with the Scriptural account, even preserving the names of Adam and Eve, of the Deluge, the dispersion of nations, and the difference of languages. They have a pure conception of a Supreme Being, whom they name Y'wah, and who is perfect, good, omnipotent, omnipresent, omniscient. These alleged traditions undoubtedly point to some former communication with Christian missionaries. The belief in the immortality of the soul and a future state, which is common to most of the Karen tribes, is entirely rejected by others, who hold that the life of man, as of animals, ends with death.

The doctrine of the tripartite nature of man—namely, his body, soul, and spirit—is elaborately developed among them. The human spirit or *ka-lá* exists, before the man is born, in some mysterious region, whence it is sent forth by God; 'it comes into the world with him, it remains with him until death, and, for aught that appears to the contrary, is immortal.' Not only man has this *ka-lá*, but animals, trees, plants, as well as spears, knives, arrows, stones, have their separate and individual *ka-lá*. When the *ka-lá* is absent the object dies, or is destroyed, or does not come into existence. The human soul or heart is *thah*, and to it alone is attributed praise or blame. Besides his *ka-lá*, every man has another principle or spirit attendant on him called *tso* (power or influence), which may be defined as reason.

The Karen tradition respecting their lost books is that formerly God gave them books written with one-sided letters on skins containing His laws. These books the Karens carelessly lost, and then the knowledge of God and how to worship Him departed from them, except as a misty tradition among their ancient wise men. They do not any longer profess to worship the Father, God, and Creator Y'wah; they

know not how to serve Him. As the whole world is filled with demons and spiritual beings, more or less malevolent and powerful, they must devote themselves to the never-ending task of propitiating these spirits. They have no images, nor, properly speaking, any visible object of devotion. The worship paid to the 'Náts,' or Spirits of Nature, is not one of love or even veneration, but simply of fear and propitiation. The Karen addresses these spirits with prayers and propitiatory offerings, to entreat them not to afflict him with sickness or other bodily calamity; or to remove those afflictions which he believes have come from them. The Karen thus lives in an atmosphere of intense spiritualism — the air, the water, the woods around him teem with invisible, intangible, and generally malicious beings.

The Karen people are composed of three distinct tribes, the Sgau, the Pwo, and the Bghai; differing somewhat in their customs and traditions, and considerably in their language. Each clan is subdivided into septs or clans, which also differ from each other in some of their customs and idioms, and particularly in their dress. There are three clans of Sgau, five of the Pwo, and six of the Bghai; but these only include the tribes and sub-tribes whose representatives are found in British Burma. In the Shan districts beyond the British frontier are the Ranlang, the Reng-ban, the Reng-tsaik, and others.

The Sgau tribe is found from Mergui to Prome and Taung-ngu. On the east, a few have wandered over the watershed which separates the Meinam from the Salwín, to the eastward of Zimme in Siam. On the west, some of them have migrated into Arakan. They are foul feeders. No animal food comes amiss with them; they eat vermin and reptiles, such as rats, lizards, and snakes. They eat none of the monkey tribe save the black monkey (Semnopithecus obscurus), which is considered a great delicacy. The Pwo tribe is found scattered along the coast from Mergui, up to and within the deltas of the Salwín, Sittaung (Tsit-taung), and Irawadi rivers. They prefer the banks of the creeks for their houses. They are very muscular, powerful men, and make capital boatmen. The Bghai tribe inhabits the elevated plateau of KAREN-NI (*q.v.*).

Of the Karens, those who live in the plains are strongly built, with large limbs; while the mountaineers are a weaker people, with smaller muscles and limbs. The men are about five feet five inches in height, and the women not more than four feet nine. In general, they are fairer than the Burmese, and the obliquity of the eyes and the cast of the countenance more nearly approach the Chinese. 'The head is pyramidal, wider across the cheek-bones than across the temples, and the bridge of the nose rises slightly above the face.' The houses vary in shape, size, and construction. Some tribes live in comparatively

permanent houses, some in temporary sheds; some have separate structures for each family, others one for the whole village.

The villages of those who live among the hills are generally built in the middle of the jungle, and remote from any frequented track. The houses are of the poorest description; all the inhabitants in a village form really one large family, being all connected by blood or marriage; no stranger can settle among them. Many large villages have never seen a European face. Some few even manage to keep the Burmese tax-gatherer outside by sending their revenue to him. This life of freedom and independence is dearer to them than all the luxuries of the plains. The only domestic animals they have are fowls, dogs, and pigs; dogs are eaten by the Bghai only.

The marriage tie is held in greater reverence than among the Burmans. Divorce is only permitted in cases of adultery; and after payment of the fine settled by the elders, the offending party is at liberty to marry. Polygamy is not permitted, but is practised by some of those who live near the Burmese. Children are generally betrothed by their parents in infancy, and heavy damages are exacted for the non-fulfilment of this obligation. A damsel thus jilted is entitled to a *kyi-zi* for her head, another for her body, and a 'gong' to hide the shame of her face. A *kyi-zi* is an enormous metal drum with only one head, and varies in value from three up to one hundred pounds, and is the standard of wealth among the Karens, as herds and flocks are among pastoral nations.

Infanticide is rarely practised, but sometimes if a mother dies, her infant is buried with her. Some of the tribes bury and some burn their dead; but those who resort to cremation state that it is comparatively a new practice, and that formerly they buried their dead. The Karens are nominally bound to temperance by their religion; but the highest pleasure they can conceive is to get drunk. The price of blood is still demanded. Slavery is common among all the tribes, and a clan of the Bghai often sell their relations. The belief in witchcraft is strong.

Their language is monosyllabic, and has consequently no inflexions, but is amply provided with suffixes and affixes; resembling the Chinese in possessing six tones besides the simple root. The American Baptist missionaries have reduced their language to writing, adopting a modification of the Burmese alphabet to express it.

At present the Karens of British Burma can be divided into two classes—those who have permanently settled in the plains and betaken themselves to a regular system of agriculture, and those who still remain in their primitive freedom on the hills. Although the former still to a great extent retain their peculiar dress and language, they have been greatly influenced by the Burmans both in manners and in religion. Most of them now profess Buddhism.

The wild denizens of the hills and forests have preserved their ancient customs; except that blood-feuds, robbing, killing, and kidnapping have to a great extent ceased. Their life is unsettled and ever changing. To raise their scanty crops, the virgin forests on the steep slopes of the hills are cleared and burnt. But the excessive rainfall washes the soil off the surface, so that only one crop can be raised on the same spot until it has again become overgrown with jungle, and a fresh deposit of earth has formed. In two or three years all the cultivable patches near a large village become exhausted. The whole community then moves off to new localities, perhaps 30 or 40 miles away, since they may not trespass on what is regarded as the range of another village.

Every year the dense forest must be attacked, and with infinite labour large trees six feet in girth, and 100 to 150 feet in height, felled, cut up, and burnt with the undergrowth, to clear the ground. The crop usually consists of rice, maize, esculent roots of different kinds, betel vines, and various pot herbs, with a small patch of cotton to supply the housewife's loom. The Karen has to guard his patch of cultivation against elephants, deer, hogs, and birds. But there is one enemy against whom all his precautions are useless when it appears in any number—the hill rat. Fortunately the visitations of this pest occur only at long intervals of forty or fifty years; the rats generally settle on a tract of country for two or three years in succession, till they have reduced it to a desert. The Karens during such visitations kill and salt the rats by thousands and eat them. From 1870 to 1874 the hill country east of the Sittaung river was devastated by one of these rat-invasions, and £10,000 was expended by the British Government in relieving the Karen tribe.

The customs, traditions, and beliefs that have been mentioned are not found universally among all the tribes in the same degree. According to the tradition of the most civilised Karens, they have retrograded from a higher state. There are certainly some branches who seem to have reached the extreme of barbarous debasement. In one part of the Province between the Sittaung river and Karen-ní is situated a mass of precipitous mountains. Here the Karens may be found in the wildest and most degraded state; knowing no arts, not even how to weave their own garments, and too lazy or proud to cultivate more than absolute necessity compels them.

In 1857, at the time of the Sepoy Mutiny in India, there arose among the Karens a leader, named Meng-Laung, a mysterious character, who affected to be an incarnation of the deity. He proclaimed that he had appeared on earth to drive the British out of Burma and to establish a Karen dynasty in Pegu. Many of the simple-minded Karens believed in his divine mission. They joined him in large numbers from the

remotest villages. The rising was promptly suppressed in Bassein District, but assumed a threatening character in Martaban and the interior. After giving considerable trouble to the authorities, it was eventually put down; but excitement prevailed for months afterwards among the Hill Karens. Every attempt to capture the leader proved fruitless. At last he made his escape from British territory, and found a refuge in the remote region of Eastern Karen-ní.

When the members of the American Baptist Mission first came to the Karens in 1828 with a Book out of which they taught words strangely agreeing with the Karen tradition, they were respectfully listened to. The results of missionary labours among the Karens have been excellent. The cessation of blood-feuds, and the peaceable way in which the various tribes are living together, is more due to the influence of the missionaries than to measures adopted by the British Government. The missionaries have a well-graded system of schools, both in the jungles and in the towns. In 1881, the American Baptist Mission had among the Karens 16 foreign ordained and 91 native ordained agents, 19 foreign lay agents (of whom 18 were females), 252 native preachers, 173 native male and 41 native female teachers. The native Karen Christians in 1871 numbered 35,876; in 1881, their numbers were estimated at about 64,200. The American Baptist Mission in 1881 maintained 3 theological and training schools, with 58 pupils; 20 Anglo-vernacular schools, with 457 pupils; and 230 vernacular schools, with 6073 pupils.

Besides the American Baptist Mission, there is a 'Home Mission' among the Karens. No returns are available for 1881, but in 1871 this mission included 5500 native Christians. And the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel established a Karen mission in 1872, with 3 foreign ordained and 5 native ordained agents. In 1881, the mission consisted of 53 native preachers, 3 native teachers, 4800 native Christians. The mission maintains 2 vernacular schools, with 82 pupils in 1881. In the Salwín Hill Tracts the Karens are taking to police work, nearly 200 having joined the force there. But they will not serve for long; as soon as they make enough money wherewith to meet marriage expenses, they withdraw—without permission, if there is any delay in answering their request to be allowed to retire.

The Census of 1881 returned the Karens in British Burma at 518,294, namely, 264,288 males and 254,006 females. Owing to the imperfect entries in the Census schedules, it was not found practicable to classify the Karens by tribes and clans. The Census returns the native converts of the American Baptist Mission at 55,322, almost entirely Karens.

A pleasing feature in connection with the Karen Baptist Mission is the increasing tendency to self-support among the communities. In

1881, the Karens themselves contributed no less than £6066 towards the maintenance of the Baptist Mission churches and schools. At the Decennial Missionary Conference held in Calcutta in December 1882, one of the Baptist missionaries stated that among the Karens 'in Bassein District, there was not a single pastor receiving foreign pay; not a single school that was not supporting its own teacher.'

Kareng-le-chin.—Village in Taung-ngu (Toungoo) District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. Situated 5 miles south of the boundary of Upper Burma and 7 miles west of the Sittaung river. Frontier police post.

Karen-ní.—An elevated plateau, extending from the eastern slope of the Paung-laung range, immediately joining British Burma on the north-east, to the Salwín river on the east. It consists chiefly of high table-land, about 3000 to 4000 feet above the level of the sea; is well cultivated, and in parts very fertile. Inhabited by the Red Karens (Karen-ní), a clan of the Bghai tribe; so named by the Burmese from the colour of the bright red turban they wear. The red Karens originally acknowledged the supremacy of one chieftain; but within the last hundred years they have split into two separate tribes, Western and Eastern Karen-nís. The western tribe has been always friendly disposed towards the British Government, and has given every assistance in its power in keeping peace on the frontier, and in opening out trade. The eastern tribe has kept aloof from communication with the British, and lately acknowledged the suzerainty of the Burmese Government.

In 1864, the old chief of Western Karen-ní requested the British Government to undertake the government and protection of his country. He was informed in reply, that while the Government placed a high value on the friendship of the Karens, it had no desire to extend its frontier in the direction of their country. On the death of the old chief in 1869, this request was renewed by his two sons, on the ground that the Burmese and the Eastern Karen-nís were encroaching on their territory; and that, unless helped, they would have to succumb. The British again declined to annex the territory of the western tribe, but made representations to the Burmese Government. Notwithstanding a formal disclaimer on the part of the Burmese king to any claim to authority over the Western Karen-nís, his continued menaces and assumptions of authority over the Karen-ní country obliged the British Government in 1875 to exact an effective guarantee. A survey party was therefore despatched under the orders of the Government of India, to survey and lay down a boundary between Western Karen-ní and Native Burma. This boundary has been formally recognised by all parties, and the independence of Western Karen-ní secured.

Karhal. — Central southern *tahsíl* of Máinpurí District, North-

Western Provinces, comprising the *parganás* of Karhal and Barnáhal; traversed by the Etáwah branch of the Ganges Canal. Area, 221 square miles, of which 110 are returned as cultivated, 34 square miles as cultivable, and 76 square miles as waste and barren. Population (1872) 88,850; (1881) 100,031, namely, males 55,720, and females 44,311. Hindus number 93,445; Muhammadans, 5534; Jains, 1049; and 'others,' 3. Land revenue, £17,384; total Government revenue, £19,473; rental paid by cultivators, £26,836. The *tahsíl* contains 1 criminal court and 3 police circles (*thánás*); strength of regular police, 31 men; village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 286.

Karhal.—Town in Máinpurí District, North-Western Provinces, and head-quarters of Karhal *tahsíl*, situated on the Etáwah and Máinpurí road, in lat. 27° 0′ 5″ N., and long. 78° 58′ 45″ E. The principal street winds off at right angles to the road and forms the *bázár*. The shops here are poor, and the houses mean; but at the back of the *bázár* some of the private dwellings are substantial and well-built. Irregular narrow lanes connect these houses with the *bázár*, and serve as imperfect drains during the rainy season. Population (1872) 5574; (1881) 7885, namely, Hindus, 4630; Muhammadans, 2420; Jains, 832; Christian, 1; 'others,' 2. Area of town site, 85 acres. A brisk local trade is carried on in *ghí*, cotton, and indigo; and for police and conservancy purposes a small house-tax is levied. The principal buildings are the *tahsíl*, police station, *sarái* or native inn, and school. The town is the residence of a Sayyid family of considerable note and influence.

Karharbári.—Coal-field in Hazáribágh District, Bengal, situated between 24° 10′ and 24° 14′ N. lat., and between 86° 16′ and 86° 23′ E. long. Area, 11 square miles, of which 8½ miles are coal-bearing. The probable amount of available fuel (excluding small seams and those of inferior quality, such as could not be worked at a profit, also making allowance for waste, etc.) is estimated at an aggregate of 70 million tons.

The existence of the field was first brought to notice in 1848, and some coal was raised at the outcrop of several of the seams to test their excellence. Systematic working was introduced in 1851 by Mr. Inman, and in 1855 by Messrs. Ward & Company, railway contractors at Monghyr. In 1856–57, the property held by this firm at Kuldihá and Rámnadí was transferred to the Bengal Coal Company, who now own 6 other mining villages in addition. In 1862, the company discontinued their workings till 1868, since which time they have been vigorously prosecuted. The East Indian Railway Company commenced working the Karharbári mine in 1858, and a large quantity of coal was annually carted away to Lakhisarái. In 1862, work was suspended chiefly on account of difficulties of carriage. In 1870, a branch line

of the East Indian Railway was constructed to their mines at Karharbári and Srírámpur, and working has been carried on uninterruptedly ever since. The total output up to June 1875 amounted to nearly 350,000 tons. At Karharbári, the railway company hold 2465 acres on a lease from Government for 82 years, at a yearly rent of £5072. At Srírámpur, they have 1408 acres on a perpetual lease from the Rájá, and pay an annual rent of £494. The company work the coal for their own consumption, and not for sale. The out-turn from the Karharbári and Srírámpur mines in 1883 was 208,000 tons. The miners are chiefly Bhuiyás, Báurís, and Santáls.

The quality of the coal of the Karharbári field has been tested by several assays of the mineral from different localities. The best seams disclose from 4·2 and 4·8 to 6·6 per cent. of ash; from 71·8 to 73·1 and 68·6 per cent. of fixed carbon; and from 24 to 22·1 and 24·8 per cent. of volatile matter, respectively. The inferior seams show from 26·5 to 34 and 39 per cent. of ash; from 57·1 to 50·9 and 48·2 per cent. of carbon; and from 16·4 to 15·1 and 12·6 per cent. of volatile matter. The specimens which gave the best results were obtained from localities in the east of the field; the inferior quality being obtained from the south-west. The results from a series of experiments prove that the Karharbári coals are better in quality than those obtained from the Ránîganj field in the ratio of 113 to 100. The principal advantage, however, of the Karharbári field is one of position, as a supplying area for the Upper Provinces and the railway stations west of Lakhisarái, there being a saving of 23 miles of carriage as compared with the Ránîganj mines.

Kariána.—Petty State in the Gohelwár Division of Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency; consisting of 10 villages, including Kariána, with seven separate shareholders. Area, 10 square miles. Population of Kariána village (1872), 1429; (1881) 1063. Kariána village is 12 miles north of Láthi station on the Dhoráji branch of the Bhaunagar-Gondal Railway. The revenue in 1881 was estimated at £2100; tribute of £85 is paid to the British Government, and £30, 14s. to the Nawáb of Junágarh. The total population of the little State in 1881 was 3156.

Karigatta.—Hill in Ashtragrám Sub-division of Mysore District, Mysore State, Southern India, at the junction of the Lokapávni river with the Káveri (Cauvery). Lat. 12° 26′ N., long. 76° 47′ E. An annual festival (*játra*), held in February or March, is attended by 20,000 people.

Kárikál (*Káraikkál*, 'the fish pass'—Tamil; *Carical Cariukalla*—Bartolomeo).—French town and settlement on the Coromandel coast, bounded on the north, south, and west by Tanjore District of the Madras Presidency, and on the east by the Bay of Bengal. Lat.

(town) 10° 55′ 10″ N., long. 79° 52′ 20″ E. Population (according to the latest French statistics in 1883) 93,055, namely, males 46,259, and females 46,796. The number of British subjects residing at Kárikál, according to the Census of 1881, was returned at 4287, of whom 2113 were males and 2174 females. Kárikál is situated on the Coromandel coast, 12 miles north of Negapatam and 6 miles south of Tranquebar. The area of the settlement, which is divided into three communes, containing in all 110 villages, covers 33,787 English acres.

The country is very fertile, and is watered by six branches of the Káveri; and by five large, and numerous smaller canals. The capital of the settlement, which gives its name to it, is a neatly built town, situated on the north bank of the Arselaar, an affluent of the Káveri, about a mile and a quarter from the sea. The French seized the town in 1736, and constructed a strong fort to defend their new possession, which was finally ceded to them, together with 81 villages, on the 21st December 1749, by the Rájá of Tanjore, the addition being confirmed by treaty in 1754. When it was thus formally given up, the settlement was estimated to yield a yearly revenue of 106,000 rupees (£10,600); but during the 130 odd years that have since elapsed, its budget has not augmented by much more than 60,000 rupees (£6000). The town and fort were besieged by an English force under Major Monson in 1760, and after a gallant defence of ten days, surrendered on the 5th of April. Kárikál came into British possession again on three subsequent occasions, and it was not finally restored to the French until the 14th January 1817.

A brisk trade in rice is conducted with Ceylon throughout the greater part of the year; a less regular import and export business is carried on with the Straits Settlements. An intermittent petty traffic obtains with France; and an emigration society derives much profit from the exportation of Indian labourers to the French colonies of Bourbon, Cayenne, Guadaloupe, and Martinique. On the subject of inland customs, a convention exists with the Madras Government, and all salt consumed in French territory is by treaty purchased from the British; but there is little doubt that the peculiar position of Kárikál, with an open coast on one side, wide-spreading rice lands on the other, and meandering streams between, admits of many opportunities for easy smuggling. The administration of the settlement is carried on by a *Chef de Service*, appointed by the President of the Republic, who is assisted by eight European officials and a host of native functionaries, all of whom are nominated by the Governor of the French settlements in India. A mayor and corporation of the town also exist, consisting of 13 members, six of whom are Europeans, or descendants of Europeans, and all are elected by universal suffrage. Accredited to the French administration is a British Consular Agent,

who is an officer of the Indian staff corps and the direct representative of the Government of Madras. The port of Kárikál is an open roadstead, the anchorage of which varies from 7 to 8 fathoms during the north-east monsoon, to 6 fathoms during the south-west. The port flagstaff shows a fixed light about 34 feet above sea-level, visible for a distance of 10 miles. The revenue of the settlement in 1882–83 amounted to 381,342 francs or £15,253, and the expenditure to 267,043 francs or £10,681. The Budget for 1885 estimated a revenue of 397,745 francs or £15,909, and an expenditure of 327,250 francs or £13,090.

Karímganj.—Sub-division of Sylhet District, Assam. Area, 1068 square miles. Population (1881) 343,421, namely, Hindus, 181,359; Muhammadans, 161,831; 'others,' 231. Houses, 68,705.

Karímganj.—Market village in the east of Sylhet District, Assam, and head-quarters of Karímganj Sub-division, on the Kusiára or southern branch of the Barák river. Lat. 24° 52′ N., long. 92° 24′ E. Rice, oil-seeds, and raw cotton are exported, in exchange for cotton goods, salt, pulses, tobacco, and bamboos.

Karímgánj.—Village in Maimansingh District, Bengal; situated 9 miles east of Kisoríganj. Large *bázár* and reed and jute mart.

Karjat.—Sub-division of Thána District, Bombay Presidency. The Sub-division, lying in the south-east of the District, includes the petty division of Khálápur. Bounded on the north by Kalyán and Murbad Sub-divisions; on the east by the Sahyadri mountains; on the south by Kolaba District; on the west by the Mátherán Hills and Panwel Sub-division. Area, 353 square miles. Population (1872) 77,150; (1881) 82,062.

Karjat may be described as a rough hilly tract lying between the Sahyadri range and the hills of Mátherán. On its northern side dales and valleys diversify the surface; the low lands are divided into rice-fields; while the higher grounds are covered with teak, *ain* (Terminalia tomentosa), and blackwood. In the east the woodlands become a forest. The Ulhás and other streams which rise in the Sahyadris flow through the Sub-division, but are dry channels in the hot season. The rainfall is fairly sufficient, and failure of the rice crop rare. Drinking water is scarce. In 1881, there were 86 ponds, 3 river dams, 642 wells, and some river pools. The rice soil is black, and the upland soil reddish. Besides rice, *ragí* (Eleusine corocana) and *vari* (Panicum miliaceum) are staple crops: no fibres are grown. The climate varies greatly with the season. In January and February the nights are extremely cold. Rainfall during ten years ending 1881 averaged 121 inches.

The population of the Sub-division, according to sex, in 1881, were 42,207 males and 39,855 females, occupying 14,937 houses. Hindus

numbered 75,769; Muhammadans, 3732; Christians, 152; Jews, 76; Pársís, 44; and 'others,' 2289. The general occupation is agriculture, and of the 268 villages not one deserves the name of town. The cultivators are mostly Kunbís and Agrís. In 1879–80, there were 11,287 holdings in the Sub-division; each holding averaged 7 acres, and paid an average rental of one guinea. As in other parts of the Bombay Presidency, the settlement rates of land revenue were fixed in 1854–56 for a period of thirty years. The total area of tilled land in 1880–81 was 75,766 acres, of which 47·2 per cent. or 35,794 acres lay fallow. Of the remainder, 1504 acres were twice cropped. Of the 41,476 acres under tillage, grain crops occupied 38,795 acres, or 93·5 per cent.; pulses, 2210 acres, or 5·3 per cent.; oil-seeds, 458 acres; and miscellaneous crops, 13 acres. The Sub-division contains 4 criminal courts; police stations (*thánás*), 2; regular police, 71 men. Land revenue (1882), £11,919.

Karjat.—Head-quarters of Karjat Sub-division, Thána District, Bombay Presidency. Population (1881) 692. Station on the south-east extension of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway, 62 miles east of Bombay, and 5 miles distant from Mátherán. The village, which is rapidly expanding since the construction of the railway, is situate on the south bank of the Ulhás river. Post-office; rest-house; school; and quarters for railway guards and drivers.

Karjat.—Sub-division of Ahmadnagar District, Bombay Presidency; bounded on the east by the Sina river, south by Karmála Sub-division of Sholápur District, west by the Bhimá river, and north by Shrigonda Sub-division.

A chain of low hills with flat summits traverses the Sub-division from north-west to south-east, dividing it into two equal parts. The streams from the eastern slope flow into the Sina river, and from the western into the Bhimá. The country presents a dismal appearance, owing to the large proportion of rocky and unprofitable ground, almost destitute of vegetation. There are a few level tracts, some of considerable extent, where the soil is deep and rich. In the neighbourhood of the hills the soil is of the poorest description. The rainfall is extremely uncertain, and good harvests are rare. The Sub-division contains about 80 miles of road, and three weekly market towns, namely, KARJAT, MIRAJGAON, and RASIN. It suffered severely in the famine of 1876–77, when many villages were deserted. The cultivators, owing to a succession of bad harvests, are nearly all in debt. Frequent territorial changes have occurred, the last in 1868–69. Area, 580 square miles. Population (1872) 48,766; (1881) 34,820, namely, 17,797 males and 17,023 females.

Number of villages, 79. In 1881, Hindus numbered 32,411; Muhammadans, 1332; and 'others,' 1077. Of 115,749 acres, the actual

area under cultivation in 1882–83, grain occupied 87,310 acres; pulses, 14,992; oil-seeds, 10,384; fibres, 2149; and miscellaneous crops, 914 acres. About 135 looms are worked, chiefly in the market towns, for the manufacture of a coarse strong cloth and woollen blankets.

The Sub-division contains 2 civil and 2 criminal courts; police station (*thánά*), 1; regular police, 31 men; village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 133. Land revenue (1882–83), £6891.

Karjat.—Chief town of the Karjat Sub-division of Ahmadnagar District, Bombay Presidency; situate in lat. 18° 33′ N., and long. 75° 3′ E., 36 miles south by east of Ahmadnagar town. Population (1872) 5535; (1881) 3608. Post-office; large school; weekly market on Saturdays.

Kárkal.—Town in South Kánara District, Madras Presidency.—*See* KARAKAL.

Karkamb.—Town in Pandharpur Sub-division, Sholápur District, Bombay Presidency; situate 13 miles north of Pandharpur. Lat. 17° 52′ N., long. 75° 20′ E. Population (1872) 7671; (1881) 6421, namely, Hindus, 5665; Muhammadans, 464; and Jains, 292. The town has a large weaving and thread dyeing industry, with about 800 looms, chiefly producing cheap cloth for women's robes. The betel-vine is also largely grown. Weekly markets on Mondays, when cattle, grain, and cloth are sold. Post-office, and a school.

Kárkúr (*Carcoor*).—*Ghát* or hill pass in Malabár District, Madras Presidency, leading from the Ernád *táluk* of Malabár into Nílgiri District. Lat. 11° 26′ 20″ to 11° 28′ N., long. 76° 27′ 20″ to 76° 28′ E.

Kárli.—Cave in Púna (Poona) District, Bombay Presidency; situated on the road between Bombay and Poona, in lat. 18° 45′ 20″ N., and long. 73° 31′ 16″ E. It is thus described by Mr. J. Fergusson in his *History of Eastern and Indian Architecture*:—'It is certainly the largest as well as the most complete Chaitya cave hitherto discovered in India, and was excavated at a time when the style was in its greatest purity. In it all the architectural defects of the previous examples are removed; the pillars of the nave are quite perpendicular. The screen is ornamented with sculpture—its first appearance apparently in such a position—and the style had reached a perfection never afterwards surpassed.

'In the cave there is an inscription on the side of the porch, and another on the lion-pillar in front, which are certainly integral, and ascribe its excavation to the Mahárájá Bhúti or Deva Bhúti, who, according to the *Puránas*, reigned B.C. 78; and if this is so, they fix the age of this typical example beyond all cavil.

'The building resembles, to a very great extent, an early Christian church in its arrangements, consisting of a nave and side-aisles, terminating in an apse or semi-dome, round which the aisle is carried.

The general dimensions of the interior are 126 ft. from the entrance to the back wall, by 45 ft. 7 in. in width. The side-aisles, however, are very much narrower than in Christian churches, the central one being 25 ft. 7 in., so that the others are only 10 ft. wide, including the thickness of the pillars. As a scale for comparison, it may be mentioned that its arrangement and dimensions are very similar to those of the choir of Norwich Cathedral, or of the Abbaye aux Hommes at Caen, omitting the outer aisles in the latter buildings. The thickness of the piers at Norwich and Caen nearly corresponds to the breadth of the aisles in the Indian temple. In height, however, Kárli is very inferior, being only 42 ft. or perhaps 45 ft. from the floor to the apex, as nearly as can be ascertained.

'Fifteen pillars on each side separate the nave from the aisles; each pillar has a tall base, an octagonal shaft, and a richly ornamented capital, on which kneel two elephants, each bearing two figures, generally a man and a woman, but sometimes two females, all very much better executed than such ornaments usually are. The seven pillars behind the altar are plain octagonal piers, without either base or capital, and the four under the entrance gallery differ considerably from those at the sides. The sculptures on the capitals supply the place usually occupied by frieze and cornice in Grecian architecture; and in other examples, plain painted surfaces occupy the same space. Above this springs the roof, semicircular in general section, but somewhat stilted at the sides, so as to make its height greater than the semi-diameter. It is ornamented even at this day by a series of wooden ribs, probably coeval with the excavation, which prove beyond the shadow of a doubt that the roof is not a copy of a masonry arch, but of some sort of timber construction which we cannot now very well understand.

'Immediately under the semi-dome of the apse, and nearly where the altar stands in Christian churches, is placed the *daghoba*, in this instance a plain dome slightly stilted on a circular drum. As there are no ornaments on it now, and no mortices for woodwork, it probably was originally plastered and painted, or may have been adorned with hangings, which some of the sculptured representations would lead us to suppose was the usual mode of ornamenting these altars. It is surmounted by a Tee, and on this still stand the remains of an umbrella in wood, very much decayed and distorted by age.

'Opposite this is the entrance, consisting of three doorways, under a gallery exactly corresponding with our rood-loft, one leading to the centre, and one to each of the side-aisles; and over the gallery the whole end of the hall is open as in all these Chaitya halls, forming one great window, through which all the light is admitted. This great window is formed in the shape of a horse-shoe, and exactly resembles those used as ornaments on the façade of this cave, as well as on those

of Bhaja, Bedsa, and at Násik. Within the arch is a framework or centring of work standing free. This, so far as we can judge, is, like the ribs of the interior, coeval with the building; at all events, if it has been renewed, it is an exact copy of the original form, for it is found repeated in stone in all the niches of the façade, over the doorways, and generally as an ornament everywhere, and with the Buddhist "rail," copied from Sánchi, forms the most usual ornament of the style.

'The presence of the woodwork is an additional proof, if any were wanted, that there were no arches of construction in any of these Buddhist buildings. There neither were nor are any in any Indian building anterior to the Muhammadan Conquest, and very few, indeed, in any Hindu building afterwards.

'To return, however, to Kárli, the outer porch is considerably wider than the body of the building, being 52 ft. wide, and is closed in front by a screen composed of two stout octagonal pillars, without either base or capital, supporting what is now a plain mass of rock, but once ornamented by a wooden gallery forming the principal ornament of the façade. Above this, a dwarf colonnade or attic of four columns between pilasters admitted light to the great window; and this again was surmounted by a wooden cornice or ornament of some sort, though we cannot now restore it, since only the mortices remain that attached it to the rock.

'In advance of this screen stands the lion-pillar, in this instance a plain shaft with thirty-two flutes, or rather faces, surmounted by a capital not unlike that at Kesariá, but at Kárli supporting four lions instead of one; they seem almost certainly to have supported a *chakra*, or Buddhist wheel. A similar pillar probably stood on the opposite side, but it has either fallen or been taken down to make way for the little temple that now occupies its place.

'The absence of the wooden ornaments of the external porch, as well as our ignorance of the mode in which this temple was finished laterally, and the porch joined to the main temple, prevent us from judging what the effect of the front would have been if belonging to a free-standing building. But the proportions of such parts as remain are so good, and the effect of the whole so pleasing, that there can be little hesitation in ascribing to such a design a tolerably high rank among architectural compositions.

'Of the interior we can judge perfectly, and it certainly is as solemn and grand as any interior can well be, and the mode of lighting the most perfect—one undivided volume of light coming through a single opening overhead at a very favourable angle, and falling directly on the altar or principal object in the building, leaving the rest in comparative obscurity. The effect is considerably heightened by the closely set thick columns that divide the three aisles from one another, as they

suffice to prevent the boundary walls from ever being seen; and, as there are no openings in the walls, the view between the pillars is practically unlimited.

'These peculiarities are found more or less developed in all the other caves of the same class in India, varying only with the age and the gradual change that took place from the more purely wooden forms of these caves to the lithic or stone architecture of the more modern ones. This is the principal test by which their relative ages can be determined, and it proves incontestably that the Kárli cave was excavated not very long after stone came to be used as a building material in India.'

Karma.—Town in Karchhána *tahsíl*, Allahábád District, North-Western Provinces; situated 12 miles south of Allahábád city, and 6 miles west of Karchhána town, in lat. 25° 17′ 52″ N., and long. 81° 53′ E. Population (1881) 3204, namely, males 1648, and females 1556. A market is held twice a week on Tuesdays and Fridays, the principal articles of traffic being grain, cotton, hides, cattle, bamboos, and metal vessels, of an estimated annual value of £5000. For police and conservancy purposes, a small house-tax is levied, amounting in 1881–82 to £101.

Karmála.—Sub-division of Sholápur District, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 17° 57′ to 18° 32′ N., long. 74° 52′ to 75° 31′ E. Area, 766 square miles; contains 122 villages, with 9300 houses. Population (1872) 105,291; (1881) 61,548, namely, 31,278 males and 30,270 females. The great decrease is due to mortality and emigration during the famine of 1876–77. Hindus numbered 57,290; Muhammadans, 2914; and 'others,' 1344.

Karmála is in the north of the District, between the Bhimá on the west and the Sina on the east. Except the hills near Kem and the dividing ridge, forming the watershed between the two rivers, the country is flat; towards the north it is rough and broken, crossed by many streams. About one-half of the soil is rich and black, and the other red and gravelly. The seasons are uncertain, a really good one, as a rule, not occurring oftener than once in three or four years, when, however, the harvest is unusually abundant. In 1881–82, of 229,048 acres, the whole area held for tillage, 31,442 acres, or 13·7 per cent., were fallow or under grass. Of the remaining 197,606 acres, 790 were twice cropped. Of the 198,396 acres under tillage, grain occupied 151,081 acres; pulses, 17,555; oil-seeds, 22,521; fibres, 5569; and miscellaneous crops, 1670 acres. In 1882–83, the total number of holdings was 5537, with an average area of about 48 acres each. Weekly fairs are held at eight towns and villages; and at Sonári an annual fair in April, attended by about 6000 persons. The Sub-division contains 1 civil and 2 criminal courts; police stations (*thánás*), 3; regular police, 40 men; village watchmen, 206. Land revenue (1882), £13,008.

Karmála.—Chief town and municipality of the Karmála Subdivision, Sholápur District, Bombay Presidency. Situated 69 miles north-west of Sholápur town, and 11 miles north of the Jeur station on the south-east line of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway. Lat. 18° 24′ N., long. 75° 14′ 30″ E. Population (1872) 6759; (1881) 5071, namely, 2495 males and 2576 females. Area of town site, 188 acres. Hindus numbered 4191; Muhammadans, 677; Jains, 200; and 'others,' 3. Karmála was originally the seat of a branch of the Nimbálkar family. The founder began and his son finished a fort which still exists, and is used for the sub-divisional offices. This fort, one of the largest in the Deccan, extends over a quarter of a square mile, and contains about 100 houses. Karmála grew and became a large trade centre, being a crossing station for the traffic lines from Bálaghát through Bársi to Poona, and between Ahmadnagar and Sholápur. Most of this traffic has now passed to the railway, but Karmála is still a large mart for cattle, grain, oil, and piece-goods. A weekly market is held on Friday, and the town has a small weaving industry, with 60 looms. The water-supply is from springs in wells three-quarters of a mile to the south. The water is carried through an earthenware conduit to dipping wells in the town. An annual fair lasting four days. Municipal income (1881), £483; expenditure, £463; incidence of municipal taxation, 1s. 11d. per head. Post-office, dispensary, school, and reading-room.

Karmár.—Petty State in the Jháláwár Division of Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency; consisting of 1 village, with 1 landholder. The revenue in 1881 was estimated at £511; tribute is paid of £14 to the British Government, and £3, 4s. to the Nawáb of Junágarh. In addition, £5, 18s. is paid as *sukhri* on account of Ahmadábád. The estate or village, with a population of 648 souls, is situated six miles to the north-east of Ránpur, and six miles south-east of Chura, stations on the Bhaunagar-Gondal Railway. Area, 3 square miles.

Karnagarh.—Hill, or more properly plateau, near Bhágalpur town, Bhágalpur District, Bengal. Lat. 25° 14′ 45″ N., long. 86° 58′ 30″ E. It formerly contained the lines of the Hill Rangers, a body of troops raised from among the hill people by Mr. Augustus Cleveland, Collector of the District, in 1780, for the pacification of the lawless jungle tribes. The corps was disbanded in 1863 on the re-organization of the native army. A wing of a native regiment is at times cantoned here.

The only objects of interest are Sivaite temples of some celebrity. These consist of four buildings (*maths*), with square bases and the usual pointed pinnacles. One is several hundred years old, the others being modern buildings. Numbers of Hindus, though not usually worshippers of Siva, pay their devotions here on the last day of the month of Kártik. The temples contain several of the so-called seats of Mahádeo

or Siva, one much prized being made of stone from the Narbadá, said to have come from the marble rocks near Jabalpur. Two monuments are here erected to the memory of Mr. Cleveland,—one by Government, and the other by the landholders of the District. Karnagarh is said to derive its name from Karna, a pious Hindu king of olden times, celebrated for the enormous sums he bestowed on Bráhmans. The plateau is locally known as the *kilá* or fort, and is the reputed site of the good Rájá's palace.

Karnál.—District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of the Punjab, lying between 29° 9′ and 30° 11′ N. lat., and between 76° 13′ and 77° 15′ 30″ E. long. Karnál is the northernmost District of the Delhi Division, and stands twenty-first in order of area, and fourteenth in order of population among the thirty-two Districts of the Province. It is bounded on the north by the District of Ambálá (Umbala) and the Native State of Patiálá, on the west by the Native States of Patiálá and Jínd, on the south by the Districts of Delhi and Rohtak, and on the east by the river Jumna (Jamuná), which separates it from the North-Western Provinces. The District includes 45 outlying villages, scattered throughout Patiálá territory, the furthest of which, Budládá, is 101 miles distant from head-quarters. It is divided into three *tahsíls*, of which Pánípat includes the southern, Karnál the central and north-eastern, and Kaithal the western and north-western portions of the District. Area, 2396 square miles. Population in 1881, 622,621 souls. The administrative head-quarters are at KARNAL town.

Physical Aspects.—Karnál forms a portion of the low dividing ridge which separates the watersheds of the Sutlej and the Jumna (Jamuná), its north-western angle being drained by small streams which swell the freshet torrent of the Ghaggar, while its eastern front slopes gently down to the banks of the Jumna itself. The District falls naturally into two divisions—*bángar*, or upland plain, and *khádar*, or low-lying land, which fringes the valley of the great river. The former consists in its highest portion of a grazing country, covered in favourable seasons with rank and luxuriant grasses, whose monotonous level is broken by belts of brushwood, and interspersed with local hollows fringed with trees of larger growth. It is traversed in its north-western extremity by the Ghaggar and the Saraswatí, whose floods fertilize a large area. These open pastures are succeeded to the south and east by a cultivated zone, through whose midst the Western Jumna Canal distributes its various branches. Three main channels convey the water towards Delhi, Hissár, and Rohták, while minor courses penetrate the fields around in every direction.

Unhappily, however, the high level of the canal, and the imperfections of the distributary system, called upon by the increasing demand for irrigation to carry a supply far larger than that for which it was designed,

have led to much flooding, which has produced its usual bad effects on the health of this region. Lines of swamps run along the sides of the embankments, and seriously interfere, not only with the sanitary condition, but also with the cultivation of the neighbouring villages; while soda salts brought to the surface by the high spring level, cover with a snow-like efflorescence, which is fatal to vegetation, many square miles of what were once fertile fields. Government is at present engaged on an extensive improvement in the upper course of the canal, which is now (1883) on the point of completion, and will, it is hoped, remedy this defect, and render the work an unmixed benefit to the people whose lands it was designed to fertilize.

Between the irrigated country and the river stretches the *khádar*, or wide valley of the Jumna. It is less abundantly wooded than the remainder of the District, though even here date-palms abound, and a thick jungle skirts in places the banks of the river.

The banks of the larger streams are fringed with forest trees, and groves of mangoes mark the neighbourhood of every temple or homestead. Indeed, as a whole, Karnál is better supplied with trees than most of the plain country of the Punjab.

The Jumna forms the entire eastern boundary of the District for a distance of 73 miles, separating Karnál from Saháranpur, Muzaffarnagar, and Meerut (Merath) Districts in the North-Western Provinces. Its bed varies from half a mile to a mile in width, of which the cold-weather stream only occupies a few hundred yards. Changes are continually taking place in the river-bed. Sandbanks shift from one side to the other of the main channel, and from time to time the whole stream changes its course. The Jumna, however, is by no means so capricious as many of the Punjab rivers. Its present tendency is slightly towards the east; and within the last few years it has changed its channel below Karnál town, so that six villages, formerly in Muzaffarnagar, are now included in this District. The other rivers or streams are the Ghaggar, Saraswatí, Burí Nadi, Chautang, and Naí Nadí. The District contains numerous *jhíls* and swamps, principally along the lines of the canals, and near the confluence of the Ghaggar and Saraswatí. It is intended to drain some of these *jhíls*, and the drainage cuts have been commenced.

The Western Jumna Canal enters Karnál from Ambálá District about 25 miles north-west of Karnál town. It flows through the low-lying *khádar* to a point four miles below Karnál town, where the Grand Trunk Road crosses it by an old Mughal bridge, and then enters the upland or *bángar* tract. From this point it holds a south-west course for about 18 miles till, near the village of Rer, the Hánsí branch strikes off westwards, *viâ* Safídon, and occupying the bed of the Chautang, flows on to Hánsí and Hissár. From Rer, the Delhi

branch runs south to Delhi city. About ten miles below Rer, another branch strikes off south-westwards towards Rohtak; and a few miles further on, just upon the confines of the District, another branch goes to Butáná. All these branches are used for irrigation in Karnál District, and distributary channels from one or other of them penetrate to all parts of the *bángar* tract.

The only mineral products are *kankar* and sal-ammoniac. The former is plentiful in most parts of the District, generally in the nodular form, but occasionally compacted into blocks. Sal-ammoniac is only made in the Kaithal *tahsíl*.

The District is famous for its sport. Antelope, *nílgai*, and other large game are plentiful in the northern jungles; partridge, hare, and quail abound throughout the District; while the canal and its attendant *jhíls* afford a home for numerous water-fowl, whose depredations seriously interfere with the out-turn of the rice crop. Fish abound in the Jumna, in the swamps along the canals, and in most of the village ponds.

History.—No District of India can boast of a more ancient history than Karnál, as almost every town or stream is connected with the sacred legends of the *Mahábhárata*. The city of Karnál itself, from which the modern District has taken its name, is said by tradition to owe its foundation to Rájá Karna, the mythical champion of the Kauravas in the great war which forms the theme of the national epic, while the greater part of the northern uplands are included in the Kurukshetr or battle-field of the opposing armies of the Kauravas and Pandavas. From the same authority we learn that Pánípat, in the south of the District, was one of the pledges demanded from Duryodhan by Yudisthira as the price of peace in that famous conflict.

In historical times, the plains of Pánípat have three times been the theatre of battles which decided the fate of Upper India. It was here that Ibráhím Lodí and his vast host were defeated in 1526 by the veteran army of Bábar, when the Mughal dynasty first made good its pretensions to the Empire of Delhi. Thirty years later, in 1556, the greatest of that line, Akbar, re-asserted the claims of his family on the same battle-field against the Hindu general of the house of Sher Sháh, which had driven the heirs of Bábar from the throne for a brief interval. Finally, under the walls of Pánípat, on the 7th of January 1761, was fought the battle which shattered the Maráthá confederation, and raised Ahmad Sháh Durání for a while to the position of arbiter of the entire empire.

It was at Karnál town that the Persian Nádir Sháh defeated the feeble Mughal Emperor, Muhammad Sháh, in 1759. During the troublous period which ensued, the Sikhs managed to introduce themselves into the country about Karnál; and in 1767, one of their chieftains,

Desu Singh, appropriated the fort of Kaithal, which had been built during the reign of Akbar. His descendants, the Bháis of Kaithal, were reckoned amongst the most important cis-Sutlej princes. The country immediately surrounding the town of Karnál was occupied about the same date by the Rájá of Jínd; but in 1795 it was captured by the ubiquitous Maráthás, and bestowed by them upon George Thomas, the military adventurer of Hariána. He was, however, almost immediately dispossessed by the Sikh Rájá, Gurdit Singh of Ládwa, who held it till 1805, when it was captured by an English force, and confiscated as a punishment for the Rájá having actively opposed the British after the battle of Delhi in September 1803.

Karnál was included in the Conquered Provinces which we obtained from the Maráthás by the treaties of Sarjí-Anjangáon and Poona (1803-04). In pursuance of the policy of Lord Cornwallis, Kaithal, and the numerous petty States which bordered Karnál on the north-west, remained in the hands of their Sikh possessors, while the remainder of the District was parcelled out among those who had rendered us service. Of these latter, the Pathán Nawáb of Kunjpura, and a Hindu family who still enjoy the revenue of the town and *parganá* of Karnál, alone retain their grants, all the others having lapsed on the death of the holders. Under Sikh rule, the sole object of the local governments appears to have been the collection of the largest possible revenue. Every rupee that could be extracted from the native cultivators was pressed into the fiscal bag of their Sikh over-lords, while cattle-lifting and open violence went unpunished on every side. Sir H. Lawrence, who effected the land settlement of Kaithal after the British occupation in 1843, described the Sikh system as one of 'sparing the strong and squeezing the weak.' Much of the District had formed a sort of No-Man's land between the Sikhs and the Maráthás, and when we took it in 1803, 'more than four-fifths was overrun by forests, and the inhabitants either removed or were exterminated.' In 1819, the Delhi territory was parcelled out into Districts, one of which had its head-quarters at Pánípat. The northern portion of the present District, held by the Sikh princes, lapsed from time to time into the hands of the British. Kaithal fell to us on the death of Desu Singh's last representative, in 1843. The disorder of the Sikh Government was immediately suppressed by prompt measures; two large cattle-lifting raids were made within a week of the British occupation, and the timely severity with which the culprits were apprehended and punished taught the predatory classes what treatment they might expect from the hands of their new masters. The petty State of Thanesar lapsed in 1850, and its capital was made for a time the head-quarters of a separate District, in which Kaithal was included; but after the Mutiny of 1857, when the Delhi territory was transferred to the Punjab,

Thanesar District was broken up, and its *parganás* redistributed in 1862 between Karnál and Ambálá (Umballa). The course of events during late years has been marked by few incidents, and nothing more than local marauding occurred during the troubles of 1857. The towns are not generally in a flourishing condition, and the opening of the railway on the opposite bank of the Jumna has somewhat prejudicially affected the trade of Karnál. But although the District cannot compare with its wealthy neighbours in the Doáb, it still possesses great agricultural resources and considerable commerce.

Population.—Owing to numerous territorial changes in the *parganás* at present composing Karnál District, it is impossible to give comparative statistics of the number of inhabitants previous to the Census of 1868. In that year an enumeration, taken over an area corresponding to that of the present District (2396 square miles), disclosed a population of 617,997. In 1881, the Census returned a total population of 622,621, showing a nominal increase of 4624 in thirteen years, thus apparently indicating that the population of what was in great part a tract desolated by continuous struggles between the Sikhs and Maráthás, has now reached the stationary stage. The results of the Census of 1881 may be briefly summarized as follows :—Area, 2396 square miles ; number of towns and villages, 863 ; number of houses, 91,442, of which 68,271 are occupied, and 23,171 unoccupied. Number of families, 118,608. Total population, 622,621, namely, males 336,171, and females 286,450 ; proportion of males, 53·9 per cent. The excessive preponderance of males may be held to imply the former prevalence of female infanticide, which has not yet been entirely stamped out. Classified according to age, there were, under 15 years of age—males 121,665, females 101,145 ; total children, 222,810, or 35·8 per cent. of the population. Above 15 years—males 214,506, and females 185,305 ; total adults, 399,811, or 64·2 per cent. of the population. From the foregoing figures the following averages may be deduced :—Persons per square mile, 260 ; villages per square mile, 0·36 ; persons per village, 721 ; houses per square mile, 38 ; persons per house, 9·12. As regards religious distinctions, the Hindu element decidedly preponderates, its adherents being returned at 453,662, or 72·8 per cent. of the inhabitants. The Muhammadans rank second, with 156,183, or 25·1 per cent. The Sikhs form a mere sprinkling of 8036 persons, being only 1·3 per cent. of the total. The remaining population consists of—Jains, 4655, and Christians, 85.

In the ethnical classification, the Játs rank first, numbering 95,108, nearly all Hindus. As usual, they represent the chief agricultural element, being careful and thrifty cultivators ; yet here, as in most other Districts, they are confined to the once sterile uplands, while the Rájputs and Gújars occupy the fruitful *khádar*. Second in numerical

order come the Bráhmans, with 55,168, most of whom are engaged in cultivation, being found most thickly in the Jumna valley. The Chamárs, who form the majority of the landless labouring class across the Jumna in the Upper Doáb, rank third, with 54,067. The Rájputs number 53,260 persons, chiefly Muhammadans, and bear the same reputation for thriftlessness as elsewhere. The Baniyás or trading class number 40,599, all Hindus or Jains. The Rors, an agricultural caste akin to the Játs, whom they almost equal as husbandmen, number 34,094. The pastoral Gújars number 21,898 in all, of whom about one-third are converts to Islám; they have not yet adopted an agricultural life, and their villages are scattered about the low-lying *khádar* country. The other most numerous castes and clans are—Chuhras, 31,288; Jhinwars, 31,200; Kumbhárs, 14,712; Tarkhans, 13,787; Nais, 10,307; Málís, 10,124. The most numerous Muhammadan class by race descent, as apart from the descendants of converts from Hinduism, are the Shaikhs, who number 13,789.

The Society for the Propagation of the Gospel in Foreign Parts has a mission station in Karnál town, established in 1865, and two branch missions at Pánípat and Kaithal, established in 1882. The number of Native Christians connected with the mission, who are employed as mission agents, is returned at 36. The operations of the mission include *zanáná* teaching, girls' schools, a dispensary under charge of a female medical missionary, and a school for children of low castes, such as Chamárs.

Division of the People into Town and Country.—The Census of 1881 returned the urban population at 78,328, residing in the following six towns:—KARNAL, 23,133; PANIPAT, 25,022; KAITHAL, 14,754; SEWAN, 5717; PUNDRI, 4977; and KUNJPURA, 4725. The total urban population therefore amounted to 12·58 per cent. of the inhabitants of the District. Of the 863 towns and villages, 225 contain less than two hundred inhabitants; 284 from two to five hundred; 182 from five hundred to a thousand; 117 from one thousand to two thousand; 35 from two thousand to three thousand; 16 from three to five thousand; 1 from five to ten thousand; 1 from ten to fifteen thousand; and 2 from twenty to thirty thousand. As regards occupation, the Census classifies the male population over 15 years of age into the following seven groups:—Class (1) Professional class, including all persons in civil or military employ, and the learned professions, 7779; (2) domestic and menial class, 14,105; (3) commercial class, including bankers, merchants, and carriers, 5742; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, including gardeners, 117,216; (5) industrial and manufacturing class, 50,712; (6) indefinite and non-productive class, 16,903; (7) unspecified, 2049. The language in common use among the people is Hindí.

connecting it with Delhi on one side, and Ambálá on the other. There are 69 miles of metalled and 540 miles of unmetalled road in the District. The Jumna, with a course of 73 miles along the eastern boundary of Karnál, is occasionally used as a waterway for flat-bottomed boats; the main canal, with the Delhi branch, has been hitherto navigable only by rafts, and they have to be broken up several times during the passage. The new canal, now approaching completion, will, when fully opened, be navigable by large boats.

Administration.—The District is administered by a Deputy Commissioner, three extra-Assistant Commissioners, and three *tahsíldárs*, with their deputies, besides the usual medical and constabulary officers. The revenue in 1872-73 amounted to £78,847, of which £67,048 was derived from the land-tax. Ten years later, in 1882-83, the revenue of the District had fallen to £72,133, of which £58,063 was contributed by the land-tax. The other principal items are stamps and local rates. Number of criminal courts, 17; of civil courts, 12. For police purposes the District is sub-divided into 17 police circles (*thánás*). The regular police amounted in 1882 to 458 men of all grades, supplemented by a municipal force of 156 constables; giving a total establishment, for the protection of person and property, of 614 men, or 1 policeman to every 3·9 square miles of the area and every 1014 of the population. There is also a village watch or rural police numbering 1116 men. There is one jail at Karnál town, with an average daily number of 210 prisoners in 1882. The average cost per inmate was £5, 15s. 10½d.; while the net cash earnings of each labouring prisoner amounted to £2, 14s.

Cattle-stealing is the normal crime of Kárnal District. These thefts are performed in a systematic manner, the animals being rapidly transferred to great distances and to other Districts by accomplices. Cattle-lifting, however, is not now so prevalent, owing to the heavy punishment awarded to offenders. Formerly, heads of families of respectable birth would demur to give a daughter in marriage to a man who had not proved his capability to support a family by cattle-lifting. The Sánsyas, Biluchís, and Tágus belong to the predatory tribes, and many of them are proclaimed under the Criminal Tribes Act. With regard to the Sánsyas and Biluchís, this Act has been worked with much success, and the numbers on the proscribed roll are decreasing steadily. The Tágus, however, are still addicted to thieving, and they travel long distances in small gangs for this purpose.

Education is making some progress, though not so rapidly as could be desired. In 1872-73 there were 99 schools in operation within the District, more than half of which were in receipt of Government aid. The total number of pupils on the rolls was 2541;

and the sum expended on instruction from the public funds amounted to £1409. In 1882–83, the Education Department returned a total of 43 State-inspected schools, with 2129 pupils, besides 121 indigenous schools attended by 1541 pupils. Total, 164 schools of all classes, with 3670 pupils. The Census Report of 1881 returned 2715 boys and 63 girls as under instruction, besides 13,226 males and 90 females able to read and write, but not under instruction. The Karnál District School, located in the old fort, had an average number of 327 pupils on the rolls in 1882. Among indigenous schools, the Arabic School at Pánípat is worthy of notice. It is supported by voluntary contributions, and is attended by some thirty or forty boys, chiefly sons of middle-class Muhammadans of the town. A branch of the Delhi *Zanáná* Mission is established at Karnál town, the ladies of which visit women in the city, and teach them and their children.

The District is sub-divided, for fiscal and administrative purposes, into 3 *tahsíls*, and contains 863 villages, owned in 1881 by 76,999 shareholders. There are municipalities at KARNAL, PANIPAT, KAITHAL, PUNDRI, and KUNJPURA. Their aggregate income amounted to £3325 in 1871–72, and the incidence of taxation per head of population was 10⅝d. In 1882–83, the total municipal income from the same towns was £5879, the average incidence being 1s. 7d. per head.

Medical Aspects.—The average annual rainfall at Karnál town is returned at 29·80 inches, although in certain tracts the rainfall is below 18 inches. In 1881, the rainfall at the head-quarters town was only 22·50 inches, or 7·30 inches below the average. No trustworthy thermometrical returns are published. In the portion of the uplands watered by the canal, malarious fever, dysentery, and enlargement of the spleen are very prevalent, owing to stagnant morasses which result from excessive percolation. Some of the villages have suffered terribly from these causes. Bowel complaints are also common, and small-pox and cholera appear occasionally in a more or less epidemic form. The total number of deaths recorded in 1872 was—13,370, or 22 per thousand, and in 1882, 19,759, or 32 per thousand. The fever-rate for the same years was 12·02 per thousand in 1872, and 19·95 per thousand in 1882. The District contains 6 charitable dispensaries, which in 1882 afforded medical relief to 2016 in-door and 36,458 out-door patients. [For further information regarding Karnál, see the *Gazetteer of Karnál District*, published under the authority of the Punjab Government (Lahore, 1884). Also Mr. D. C. J. Ibbetson's Report on the Southern *Parganás* of the District; Mr. Stack's *Memorandum upon Current Land Settlements in the temporarily settled parts of British India*, p. 321; the *Punjab Census Report* for 1881; and the several Administration and Departmental Reports from 1880 to 1883.]

Karnál.—Central *tahsíl* or Sub-division of Karnál District, Punjab. It may be divided into three parts—the low riverain valley of the Jumna to the west; the canal watered highlands to the south; and the pasture lands of the Nardak to the north-west. Area, 832 square miles, containing 359 villages or towns, with 23,485 houses. Population (1881) 231,094, or 278 persons per square mile. Classified according to religion, there were—Hindus, 161,577; Muhammadans, 65,747; Sikhs, 2594; Jains, 1129; and Christians, 47. Of a total assessed area of 820 square miles, or 1,533,990 acres, according to the last quinquennial agricultural statistics of the Punjab Government for 1878–79, 241,870 acres were returned as under cultivation, 174,683 acres as cultivable, and 112,629 acres as uncultivable waste. The average annual area under cultivation for the five years 1877–78 to 1881–82, was 203,264 acres, the principal crops being—rice, 56,778 acres; wheat, 32,631; *joár*, 58,535; barley, 22,353; gram, 13,478; Indian corn, 5011; cotton, 2616; and sugar-cane, 2980 acres. Revenue of the *tahsíl*, £16,192. The administrative staff, including the head-quarters for the whole District, comprises a Deputy Commissioner, with 3 Assistant or extra-Assistant Commissioners, 1 *tahsíldár*, 1 *munsif*, and 1 honorary magistrate. These officers preside over 7 criminal and 6 civil courts. The *tahsíl* contains 6 police circles (*thánás*), with a regular police force of 172 officers and men, besides 436 village watchmen (*chaukídárs*).

Karnál.—Town, municipality, and administrative head-quarters of Karnál District, Punjab. Lat. 29° 42′ 17″ N., long. 77° 1′ 45″ E. Founded, according to tradition, by Rájá Karna, champion of the Kauravas in the great war of the *Mahábhárata*, and certainly a city of immemorial antiquity. Occupied by the Rájás of Jínd about the middle of the last century, wrested from them in 1795 by George Thomas, the adventurer of Hariána, and immediately seized by the Sikh Rájá of Ládwá, from whom the British captured it in 1805. (*See* Historical section, KARNAL DISTRICT.) It was conferred together with its *parganá* in permanent tenure (*istimrár*) upon the Mandal Nawábs in exchange for a similar grant held by them across the Jumna. The fort was occupied as a British cantonment for many years, suitable compensation being made to the Nawáb, but was finally abandoned in 1841. In 1840, it was selected as a residence for Dost Muhammad Khán, Amír of Kábul, in which he was detained for about six months, on his way to Calcutta, as a State prisoner. The fort was afterwards used successively as a jail, as quarters for a native cavalry regiment, as a poorhouse, and was ultimately made over to the Education Department for the District school.

Karnál stands upon high ground, just above the old bank of the Jumna, overlooking the *khádar*, or lowland tract. The river now

flows 7 miles away to the east; but the Western Jumna Canal passes just beneath the town, and, intercepting the drainage, causes malarious fever, which has given Karnál an evil reputation. A wall 12 feet in height encloses the town, and forms the back of many houses.

The population of the town, which in 1868 numbered 27,022, had by 1881 fallen to 23,133, namely, males 12,626, and females 10,507. Classified according to religion, the population in the latter year consisted of—Hindus, 15,215; Muhammadans, 7550; Jains, 213; Sikhs, 110; and 'others,' 45. Number of houses, 3679. The decrease of the population is in some measure due to the opening of the railway on the opposite bank of the Jumna, which has prejudiced the commercial importance of Karnál, but still more to its unhealthiness, caused by the canal and swamps, which has increased of late years. Municipal income in 1875-76, £1532; in 1882-83, £2057; the average incidence of taxation being 1s. 9¼d. per head of the population.

The streets of the town are well paved, but nearly all are narrow and tortuous; the sanitary arrangements are fairly good. The civil station stretches to the north of the town, where the cantonment formerly lay, and comprises the court-house and treasury, *tahsíli*, police station, staging bungalow, and several *saráis*, besides a small church, dismantled since the removal of the cantonment. Outside the town are the District and many other schools, charitable dispensary, and town hall. The Government formerly maintained a large stud farm here, but it was abolished in 1875. A branch cattle farm has been recently established in connection with the Government farm at Hissár. Brisk trade in the produce of the canal villages with Delhi and Ambálá. Manufacture of country cloth for local consumption, and blankets and boots for export. The blanket trade employs about 100 looms.

Karnála (*Funnel Hill*).—Fort and hill in Thána District, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 19° 53′ N., and long. 73° 10′ E., a few miles north-west of the Vegavati river, and 8 miles south of Panwel; elevation, 1560 feet above sea-level. Commands the high road between the Bor Pass and the Panwel and Apta rivers. The hill has an upper and lower fort. In the centre of the upper fort is the 'funnel,' an almost inaccessible basalt pillar about 125 feet high. The funnel rock is locally known as the Pándu's tower. From the south-west of the hill can be seen the island-studded harbour of Bombay.

The fort was often taken and retaken during the turbulent period of Indian history. Under the Muhammadans, Karnála was garrisoned to overawe the North Konkán. Troops from Ahmadnagar took it in 1540. The Portuguese captured it soon after, but gave it up on receiving a ransom of £1750 a year. Sivají, the Maráthá leader, seized it in 1670, driving out the Mughals. On the death of Sivají, Karnála was

recaptured by Aurangzeb's generals, and was held by the Mughals till at least 1735. Shortly afterwards, it must have again passed into the hands of the Maráthás, for in 1740 the Peshwá's power was established over the whole of the Deccan. In 1818 the fort was captured, and passed into British possession, together with the whole remaining territory held by the Peshwá. It is now in ruins.

Karnaphulí.—River of Bengal; rises in a lofty range of hills beyond the north-east border of the Chittagong Hill Tracts, in lat. 22° 55′ N., and long. 92° 44′ E.; and, after flowing a circuitous course southwards and westwards, finally falls into the Bay of Bengal, in lat. 22° 12′ N., and long. 91° 49′ 30″ E., 12 miles below the town and port of CHITTAGONG, which is situated on its right bank. As far up as Chittagong town, the river is navigable by steamers and sea-going vessels; and for large native cargo boats as high as KASALANG in the Chittagong Hill Tracts, a distance by river of about 96 miles. Beyond Kásálang, for a distance of 20 miles, the river is navigable by smaller craft; but above this point navigation is much impeded by a succession of low falls and long rocky slopes, about a mile in length, known as the BARKAL rapids. Following still up stream, the river narrows considerably as it flows among the higher ranges of hills. Its course continues north for some distance, and then sweeps to the east till the DEMAGIRI falls are reached, some three days' journey from Barkal. Above this, it becomes an insignificant stream in a rocky bed, only navigable by the smallest canoes. The chief tributaries of the Karnaphulí are the Kásálang, Chingrí, Kaptái, and Rankhiang rivers in the Hill Tracts, and the Haldá in Chittagong District, the latter a navigable stream which empties itself into the main river from the north, being navigable by native boats for 24 miles throughout the year. Principal river-side towns and villages — KASALANG, RANGAMATI, CHANDRAGUNA, RANGUNIA, and CHITTAGONG.

Karnátik or **Carnatic** (*Kannanda; Kanara; Karnáta; Karnátaka-desa,* 'the Kanarese country').—The name erroneously applied by modern European writers to the Tamil country—that is, the country from Cape Comorin to the Northern Circars, lying east of the Gháts, and reaching to the sea on the Coromandel coast. Including Nellore, which is a Telugu-speaking District, it stretches from 8° 10′ to 16° N. lat., and from 77° 19′ to 80° 19′ E. long. The modern application of the name Karnátik includes the territories of Arcot, Madura, and Tanjore, or, going back to a yet earlier period, the kingdoms of Chola, Pandya, and part of Chera,—countries, as Wilkes says, never anciently included in the Karnátik. The boundaries of the true Karnátik, or Karnátaka-desa, are given by the same authority as 'commencing near the town of Bídar (Beder), in latitude 18° 45′ north, about 60 miles north-west from Haidarábád (Hyderábád, Deccan); following

the course of the Kanarese language to the south-east, it is found to be limited by a waving line which nearly touches Adoni, winds to the west of Gooty (Gúti), skirts the town of Anantápur, and, passing through Nandidrúg, touches the range of the Eastern Gháts; thence pursuing their southern course to the mountainous pass of Gazzalhati, it continues to follow the abrupt turn caused by the great chasm of the western hills between the towns of Coimbatore, Polách, and Pálghát; and, sweeping to the north-west, skirts the edges of the precipitous Western Gháts, nearly as far north as the sources of the Kistna (Krishna); whence following first an eastern and afterwards a north-eastern course, it terminates in rather an acute angle near Bídar, already described as its northern limits.'

This country was ruled by the Chalúkya, Chera, Ganga, and Pallava dynasties, till about the 10th century, when the south fell into the hands of the Cholás, and the last three dynasties ceased to exist. The Kalachúrís succeeded in the north; and about the 12th century the whole was subjugated by the dynasty holding court at Dwárasamudra, from about 1035 to 1326, when, upon being defeated by the Muhammadans, Ballála Deva retired to TONNUR, in Mysore, where his descendants remained as feudatories of Vijayanagar. The latter dynasty, which came into power about the year 1336, and survived till 1565, conquered the whole of the Peninsula south of the Tungabhadra river. They were completely overthrown by the Muhammadans in 1565, and retired first to Pennakonda, and then to Chandragiri, one branch of the family settling at Anagundí. It was these conquests that probably led to the extension of the term Karnátik to the southern plain country; and this latter region came to be called Karnáta Payanghát, or lowlands, to distinguish it from Karnáta Bálághát, or the hill country. When the Muhammadan kings of the Deccan (Dakshin) ousted the Vijayanagar dynasty, they divided the north of the Vijayanagar country between them into Karnátik Haidarábád (or Golconda) and Karnátik Bijápur, both being sub-divided into Payanghát and Bálághát. At this time, according to Wilkes, the northern boundary of Karnáta (Karnátik) was the Tungabhadra.

Speaking of this period and the modern misapplication of the name, Bishop Caldwell says: 'The term Karnáta or Karnátaka is said to have been a generic term, including both the Telugu and Kanarese peoples and their languages, though it is admitted that it usually denoted the latter alone, and though it is to the latter that the abbreviated form Kannadam has been appropriated. Karnátaka (that which belongs to Karnáta) is regarded as a Sanskrit word by native Pandits, but I agree with Dr. Gundvet in preferring to derive it from the Dravidian words, *kar*, "black," *nádu* (the adjective form of which in Telugu is *náti*), "country," *i.e.* "the

black country," a term very suitable to designate the "black cotton-soil," as it is called, of the plateau of the Southern Dekkan. The use of the term is of considerable antiquity, as we find it in Vahára-mihira at the beginning of the fifth century A.D. Táranátha also mentions Karnáta. The word Karnáta or Karnátaka, though at first a generic term, became in process of time the appellation of the Kanarese people and of their language alone, to the entire exclusion of the Telugu. Karnátaka has now got into the hands of foreigners, who have given it a new and entirely erroneous application. When the Muhammadans arrived in Southern India, they found that part of it with which they first became acquainted—the country above the Gháts, including Mysore and part of Telingána—called the Karnátaka country. In course of time, by a misapplication of terms, they applied the same name Karnátik, or Carnatic, to designate the country below the Gháts, as well as that which was above. The English have carried the misapplication a step further, and restricted the name to the country below the Gháts, which never had any right to it whatever. Hence the Mysore country, which is properly the true Karnátik, is no longer called by that name; and what is now geographically termed "the Karnátik" is exclusively the country below the Gháts, on the Coromandel coast, including the whole of the Tamil country and the Telugu-speaking District of Nellore.'—Caldwell's *Grammar of the Dravidian Languages*, pp. 34, 35.

Karnprayág.—Village in Garhwál District, North-Western Provinces; situated at the junction of the Pindar and the Alaknanda. Lat. 30° 15′ N., long. 79° 14′ 40″ E. Forms one of the five sacred halting-places on the pilgrimage to Himáchal. The principal temple, dedicated to Uma, one of the forms of the wife of Siva, is said to have been rebuilt by Sankara Achárya, the famous religious reformer of the 9th century A.D. A *jhúla* or rope bridge formerly crossed the Pindar here, but is now superseded by an iron suspension bridge. Elevation above sea-level, 2560 feet.

Karnúl (*Kurnoul*, *Karnulu*, *Canoul*—Orme; *Kandanúl*—Hamilton).—British District in the Madras Presidency. Lies between 14° 54′ and 16° 14′ N. lat., and between 77° 46′ and 79° 15′ E. long. Bounded on the north by the rivers Tungabhadra and Kistna (which separate it from the Nizám's Dominions) and by Kistna District; on the south by Cuddapah and Bellary; on the east by Nellore and Kistna; and on the west by Bellary. Area (including the petty State of BANAGANAPALLI, *q.v.*), 7788 square miles. Population (1881), also including Banaganapalli, 709,305 souls. The administrative head-quarters are at KARNUL town.

Physical Aspects.—Two long mountain ranges, the Nallamalai and the Yerramalai (Yellamalai) hills, extend in parallel lines, north and south,

through the centre of the District. The Nallamalai range is about 70 miles long in Karnúl, and nearly 25 miles broad in the widest parts. The principal heights are Biramkonda (3149 feet), Gundlabrahmeswaram (3055 feet), and Durgapukonda (3086 feet). There are five plateaux on this range, of which the principal is that of Gundlabrahmeswaram, 2700 feet high, reached by two paths of easy gradient. On this a bungalow has been built, but the site is unsuited for a sanitarium. The Yerramalai is a low range, generally flat-topped with scarped sides. The highest point is about 2000 feet. These two ranges divide the District into three well-defined sections. The eastern section, called the Cumbum (Kambham) valley, is about 600 feet above sea-level, and is very hilly. The Velikonda (2000 feet) range, the main edge of the Eastern Gháts, bounds this valley on the east. Several low ridges run parallel to the Nallamalais, broken here and there by gorges, through which mountain streams take their course. Several of these gaps were dammed across under native rule, and tanks formed, for purposes of cultivation. One of the tanks so formed is the magnificent Cumbum Tank, closed in by a dam across the Gundlakamma river. It covers an area of nearly 15 square miles, and irrigates about 6000 acres of land, yielding a revenue of nearly £6000 a year. The northern part of the valley is drained by the Gundlakamma, the southern part by the Sagilair (Sagileru), a tributary of the Penner. Both these rivers rise in the Nallamalai hills.

From the Cumbum (Kambham) valley, the Nandikanama *ghát* (highest point, 2000 feet) and the Mantral Pass lead across the Nallamalais to the central division. This is a very extensive, flat, open valley, between 700 and 800 feet above sea-level, and covered with black cotton-soil. Northward, it is crossed by the watershed between the Pennár (Ponnaiyar) and the Kistna, and it is drained by the Bhavanási to the north and the Kundair (Kunderu) to the south. In the hot months, this plain presents an arid appearance. On the hill-sides, however, green woodlands and private gardens are seen, watered by the streams and springs which rise in the neighbouring hills. The canal of the Madras Irrigation Company is carried right down this valley. On the flank of the hills, bounded by the two valleys, stone implements were recently discovered by the geological surveyors. It has been suggested that the people who used them lived on these hills when the valleys were still under water.

The western division differs in its features from the other two. It forms the northern end of the eastern edge of the Mysore Plateau; and lies 900 feet above the sea at Karnúl town, on its northern extremity, and 1700 feet at Peapalli, 4 miles north of its southern limits. It is dotted with bare rocky hills and long ridges, and is drained from south to north by the Hindri, which falls into the Tungabhadra at Karnúl.

Rivers.—The principal rivers are the Tungabhadra and the Kistna, which bound the District on the north. When in flood, the Tungabhadra averages 900 yards broad and 15 feet deep. It is usually crossed by means of basket boats, some of which are of large size. In 1860, an anicut or weir was built across the river at Sunkesala, 18 miles above Karnúl town, and a canal dug for the double purpose of irrigation and navigation. After the floods subside, a fine description of melon is grown in the river-bed. Small communities of fishermen, who monopolize the ferrying trade, live in villages on the banks of the river, but they complain that since the construction of the anicut, the fishing industry has fallen off considerably. The Kistna in Karnúl District flows chiefly through uninhabited jungles, sometimes in long smooth reaches, with intervening shingly rapids. The average fall of the river is about 1½ feet per mile above the junction and 4 feet below it; the depth in high flood varies from 25 to 40 feet. The Bhavanási, which rises in the Nallamalai hills, drains the northern part of the watershed, and falls into the Kistna at Sangameswaram, a place of pilgrimage. Below their junction is a whirlpool (*chakratirtam*) which is regarded as holy by the native pilgrims. The Kunderu, a rapid stream, rises on the western Yerramalais. Winding round the hills, it drains the central valley and falls into the Pennár. The Gundlakamma rises in the Nallamalais, and, after receiving two other mountain torrents, passes through the Cumbum gorge, where it is formed into a tank. Emerging again from the tank, and obstructed in its easterly course by the base of the Velikonda range, it makes a remarkable curve towards the north, and flows through Kistna and Nellore Districts to the sea. It is rapid, deep, and erosive, often injuring the wells on its banks, and has a minimum flow of 800 cubic feet of water per second. The Gundlakamma and the Sagileru are utilized for cultivation by means of rough low dams thrown across them. In the Bhavanási, temporary dams are constructed every year.

Geology.—The rocks of the District belong to three different formations, corresponding to its three great physical divisions. In the Kunderu valley or Karnúl formation, shales, limestones, and quartzites are the prevailing rocks. The limestone makes very good building material, and resembles the Nigrí stone, with which many of the railway stations are built. The limestone found near Karnúl is used for lithographic purposes. Nearly the whole of the Kunderu valley, including the Nandikotkúr *táluk* at its head, the lands on the banks of the Hindri, and about one-fifth of the Cumbum valley on the banks of the Gundlakamma and Sagileru, are covered with black cotton-soil. The minerals found in Karnúl District are diamonds, steatite, iron, lead, copper. Running from the Nallamalais and Yerramalais are several hot springs, of which the Mahánandi and the Kalwa Buggas are sufficiently

copious to irrigate a good deal of land. There were in 1882–83, 116 mines and quarries in the District; annual value of out-turn, about £2100.

Forests.—There are three recognised forest divisions in the District—the Nallamalai, the Vellikonda, and the Yerramalai. The first two are conserved by the Forest Department, and yield a revenue which in 1875–76 amounted to £2700. The Nallamalais are said to contain the finest forests on the eastern side of the Presidency, covering an area of about 2000 square miles. The chief timber-trees found here are teak (Tectona grandis), *nallamada* (Avicennia officinalis), and *yepi* (Hardwickia binata). The jungles on the western slope are tolerably thick, but those on the eastern flank are thin and poor. In the northern parts, where the jungle is poor, there are extensive grassy level lands, which afford pasture to numerous herds of cattle from Nellore and Kistna Districts. The grazing lands are annually let for about £70 or £80. The Yerramalai hills are generally bare of trees on their flat tops, but their slopes and the plains below are clothed with shrubs of all kinds and some stunted trees, but no valuable timber. These jungles are in charge of the Collector, and yielded a revenue in 1875–76 of £518. This revenue is constituted into a local fund, and spent on works of public utility, such as planting groves, sinking wells, etc. The jungle products—found chiefly in the Nallamalai forest—are gall-nuts, honey, wax, tamarinds, stick-lac, and bamboo rice.

Wild Animals.—Tigers are not numerous in the Nallamalai hills, but they are remarkably addicted to man-eating. Occasionally a tiger is known to stray into the plains. In 1867, a man-eater infested the Nandikanama Pass, and a reward of £100 was offered for its death. The animal was at last killed; but it was soon found that it was not the only one that did the mischief. The usual reward, £3, 10s., for killing tigers was raised to £30. Since then their numbers have been considerable lessened, and the reward has now been reduced to £10. The other animals of the District include leopards, wolves, hyænas, foxes, jackals, etc. No bears or *chitás* (Felis jubata) are found. The number of deaths caused by wild beasts between 1867 and 1875 was 163, of which 64 occurred in 1867. The average amount spent in rewards for the destruction of wild beasts is £250 a year. Spotted deer, and several varieties of antelopes, are found on the mountains. Bison have been seen in the northern Nallamalais. Porcupines and hogs abound in the jungles, and commit depredations on the crops. The Indian antelope abounds on the plains, and the gazelle (Gazella bennettii) on the low rocky hills. Feathered game of many kinds is abundant: pea-fowl, jungle-fowl, the spangled and red varieties of spur-fowl, painted and grey partridges, florican, duck, snipe, plovers, curlew

of many varieties, and quail. In the Tungabhadra and the deeper reaches of the Kistna, the *mahásír*, sable, etc., attain considerable size. A *mahásír* brought before Dr. Day, when he visited Karnúl, weighed 38 lbs., and another was stated to weigh 50 or 60 lbs. No revenue is derived from fisheries. Snakes, chiefly cobras, abound. Formerly, small rewards were given for the destruction of snakes, but this practice has been discontinued. Tiger, leopard, and deer skins, and antelope horns, are sold in small quantities.

Population.—The regular Census of 1871 returned a total of 959,640 inhabitants; that of 1881 a total of 709,305, namely, 359,354 males and 349,951 females. The decrease since 1871 of 250,335, or 26·09 per cent., is attributable to the famine which devastated Southern India in 1876–78. Karnúl was in the heart of the famine zone. Always a poor, thinly-populated District, remote from the great centres of trade and from railway communication, it was the most difficult tract to relieve with imported food. The decrease in population after the famine, in the different *táluks*, varied from 9·30 per cent. in Márkápur to 39·21 per cent. in Pattikonda. The area of the District is returned at 7788 square miles; density of population, 91 persons per square mile. Number of towns, 3; villages, 833; occupied houses, 149,194; unoccupied houses, 26,805; villages per square mile, 0·1; persons per occupied house, 4·8.

In 1881, the Hindus numbered 615,992, or 86·84 per cent. of the total population; Muhammadans, 81,827, or 11·54 per cent.; Christians, 11,464, or 1·62 per cent.; Jains, 6; and 'others,' 16. Among high-caste Hindus, Bráhmans numbered 18,843; Kshattriyás, 2898; and Chettis (merchants and traders), 31,564. The intermediate class include—Vallálas or Kápus (agriculturists), 192,086; Idaiyars (shepherds), 71,911; Vannáns (washermen), 19,629; Ambattans (barbers), 10,859; Kushavans (potters), 9958; Kammálars (artisans), 9895. The most numerous of the lower castes are the Shembadavans, who number 66,705, and are fishermen, hunters, and palanquin-bearers; their women sell jungle fruits. Kaikalars (weavers) numbered 15,122; and Shánáns (toddy-drawers), 10,593. Pariahs or outcastes numbered 95,969. Of the Muhammadans, 74,395 were Sunnís, 1005 Shiás, 4 Wahábís, and 6423 unspecified.

The Christian population in 1881 was 11,464, or almost exactly three times the number returned in 1871. Protestants, undistinguished by sect, numbered 7256. Adherents of the Church of England were returned at 727; Baptists, 736; Roman Catholics, 1015; Congregationalists, 21; Independents, 2; and unspecified, 1698.

The Catholics, whose principal station is at Polúr, originally belonged to the Kápu or cultivating caste, and their conversion to Christianity has not made any material change in their manners and customs. They

eat and drink with Hindus, and in several cases intermarry with them. They have founded a village named Kothala, and are generally well off. The Protestant stations are Nandiál, Muthialpád, and Karnúl. The former two were founded in 1855, and the last (Baptist Mission) in 1876. The Protestant converts are almost entirely low-caste natives in rural tracts.

Classified according to occupation, the Census of 1881 distributes the adult male population into six main groups:—(1) Professional class, including State officials of every description and the learned professions, 10,036; (2) domestic servants, inn and lodging-house keepers, 2346; (3) commercial class, including merchants, bankers, carriers, etc., 11,339; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, including gardeners, 153,318; (5) industrial class, including all manufacturers and artisans, 52,184; (6) indefinite and non-productive class, comprising general labourers, male children, and persons of unspecified occupation, 130,131. About 54 per cent. of the total population are returned as 'workers,' on whom the remaining 46 per cent. depend. Of the males 68·43 per cent., and of the females 39·46 per cent., are 'workers.' The language of the District is Telugu. In Pattikonda *táluk*, a large number speak Kanarese.

The wild tribes or Chenchus live on the Nallamalai hills, in small communities called *gudems*. Each *gudem* includes several tribes, and has a portion of the hills allotted to it by common consent. The Chenchus do not transfer their rights to the hill produce to each other, but occasionally give a portion as dowry to their daughters. They are unwilling to cultivate, but are sometimes employed by the villagers in the plains to watch their fields during the harvest. In former times they were allowed a kind of black-mail; but since the introduction of the police force, this has been discontinued, and some of them are employed as *ghát taliaris* or road watchmen. During the hill festival they collect fees from pilgrims. Some of them also enjoy *ináms* (free lands) for guarding the jungles. Their language is chiefly a patois of Telugu.

Of the 836 towns and villages in the District, 84 contained in 1881 a population less than two hundred; 207 contained between two and five hundred; 314 between five hundred and one thousand; 189 between one and two thousand; 28 between two and three thousand; 10 between three and five thousand; 3 between five and ten thousand; and 1 between twenty and fifty thousand.

The principal towns are—KARNUL (population 20,329), NANDIAL (8907), CUMBUM (7170), GUDUR (3547), MADDIKERA (6181), KODUMUR (3736), and PEPALI (3535).

Agriculture.—The chief crops grown in Karnúl are—millets, pulse, cotton, oil-producing plants, and indigo. Crops artificially irrigated

occupy comparatively but a small area; they consist mainly of rice and sugar-cane. Wheat and flax are grown on an insignificant scale. Tobacco, chillies, plantains, areca-nut palms, etc., are raised in the immediate neighbourhood of villages. The staple of the District is *cholam* (Sorghum vulgare), of which the principal varieties are the yellow and white *jonna*. The yellow *jonna* is the early crop, and is sown early in June, on red as well as on black soil. The white *jonna*, the later crop, is sown in September or October, and reaped in February and March. No improvement has taken place in the mode of cultivation or in the quality of produce, but within the last twenty years there has been a very great extension of the area under the principal crops. Cotton is largely cultivated, but there has been no consequent decrease in the cultivation of food-grains; other fibres are cultivated only to a small extent for home consumption.

The total area of the District is 4,497,011 acres. Of these, 1,635,566 acres were under cultivation in 1882-83; 5106 acres bearing two crops. Of the area under cultivation, 43,452 acres were artificially irrigated, and 1,592,114 acres unirrigated. Area cultivable but waste, 973,506 acres; pasture and forest land, 322,526 acres; barren land, 1,570,519 acres. *Inám* or rent-free grants covered an area of 991,472 acres. *Cholam* occupied 626,699 acres, or 38 per cent. of the total cultivated area; *khoda* (Panicum miliaceum), 131,838 acres; *samai* (Panicum miliare), 17,640 acres; *rágí* (Eleusine corocana), 13,668 acres; other millets, 307,099 acres; rice, 51,281 acres; wheat, 5753 acres; and maize, 190 acres; pulses, 84,221; garden produce, 2915; drugs and narcotics, 5509; chillies, 8509; onions and spices, 481; sugar-cane, 641; gingelly, 3252; castor-oil, 55,799; linseed, 3019; indigo, 103,377; cotton, 212,585; and jute, 382 acres.

A second crop is obtained only from certain lands and in exceptional cases. It may be taken as three-fourths of the first crop in quantity, and considerably less than three-fourths in value. The *ráyats*, as a rule, cultivate their own lands. Owners of very large holdings sublet some of their fields and employ labourers on others. The average annual assessment, including local rates and cesses levied on land, is 1s. 10½d. per acre. The wages of agricultural day-labourers and artisans are usually paid in kind. When paid in cash, coolies or unskilled labourers receive from 5¾d. to 7½d. a day; blacksmiths, bricklayers, and carpenters, 1s. to 1s. 4d.

The prices of produce in 1882-83 were as follows:—Per *maund* of 80 lbs.—rice, 6s. 2d.; *rágí*, 2s. 2½d.; millets, 2s. 4d.; wheat, 5s. 4½d.; salt, 6s. 1¼d.; sugar, £1, 4s. 4d.; linseed oil, 6s. 10½d.; cotton, £1, 8s. 4½d.; indigo, £15, 8s. A sheep costs 4s. 2d.; a plough bullock, about £4, 13s. Camels can be hired at 2s. a day; draught bullocks, 1s. 5d.; horses, 1s. 10d.; ponies, 1s. 1d.; and carts, 5½d.

Tenures.—The land tenures of the District are :—(1) *Ráyatwárí*, *i.e.* land held direct from Government. (2) *Jágír* and *Shrotriam*, or villages granted to individuals by former governments. (3) Minor *inám*—lands held rent-free or at favourable rates for personal benefit. If the *inám* is unenfranchised, it is liable to revert to Government on failure of lineal heirs. (4) Service *inám*, granted for the support of temples and mosques, or for the benefit of the village community, either rent-free or subject to the payment of a small quit-rent. (5) Joint tenure. *Shrotriam* villages are generally held in coparcenary. In such cases the *ráyats* have rights of occupancy, and cannot be ejected unless they fail to pay the rent, which may be either a share of the produce, a fixed quantity of grain, or a money payment. (6) *Dasabandham*—land held on condition of repairing irrigation works, for which the owner is allowed a specified quantity of land or a reduction averaging one-fourth of his assessment.

There is not much waste land in the plains, but there is a good deal in the Nallamalai range, which was cultivated in ancient times, but is now overgrown with jungle. In 1854, Captain Nelson of the Madras Invalid Corps settled here to restore a large ruined tank and reclaim the jungle ; but after several years' residence, he gave up the attempt. Manure is chiefly used for garden and 'wet' crops ; but to the west of the Nallamaláis, 'dry' lands are also largely manured. Lands on which rice, sugar-cane, areca-nut, saffron, *rágí*, tobacco, and chillies are grown, are irrigated from tanks and wells. Poorer lands are left fallow for purposes of pasture, and are charged the usual assessment, except in villages where they have been abandoned by common consent. Rotation of crops is well known in the District.

The main canal of the Madras Irrigation Company, intended for the double purpose of irrigation and navigation, runs from Sunkesala to Cuddapah, total length 189 miles ; length within the limits of Karnúl District, 140 miles. The nominal width of the canal is 60 yards, and the depth of water 8 feet. The water-rate charged for rice is about 12s. per acre, and less for other crops according to the length of time for which water is taken. The area accessible to the waters of this canal in Karnúl District is estimated at 284,206 acres. The canal was transferred to Government on the 6th July 1882. The total area irrigated in 1883–84 was 19,674 acres, against 17,834 acres in 1882–83, and the revenue derived from irrigation amounted to £6795, against £5926 in the previous year. The navigation receipts in 1882–83 amounted to £1068; in 1883–84, owing to a breach, traffic was partially suspended, and remission of rent to the leaseholders of boats was granted. Arrangements were being made in 1883–84 for providing distributaries required for the extension of irrigation.

Natural Calamities.—The villages on the banks of the rivers Tunga-

bhadra and Kistna are occasionally flooded, the most disastrous recent instance being in 1851, when the crops of some villages and the buildings in the lower part of Karnúl town were injured. This inundation was due to a heavy rainfall at the head-waters and within the District. Both Karnúl and the neighbouring District of Bellary suffer from droughts at periodic intervals; and the mass of the population being small landowners, with no reserve capital, the failure of a single monsoon involves general distress. There is no record of the earlier famines; but 1804, 1810, 1824, 1833, 1854, 1866, 1876, and 1877 were all years of drought and consequent scarcity. In 1854, the price of *cholam* rose to £19 per 3200 Madras measures, against £9, 10s. in the previous year. In Karnúl, the season of 1866 was not so bad as in Bellary; but owing to exportation, prices rose very high, *cholam* selling at 8½ measures (about 24 lbs.) per rupee, or three times the normal rate.

In 1876 both the monsoons failed. The floods of 1874 had seriously injured the tanks and the crops, while the harvest in 1875 was but partial. Prices rose from 18 measures (about 50 lbs.) a rupee in July, the sowing season, to 12 measures or 33 lbs. a rupee in September or October, the period at which the principal crop is generally harvested; and to 6 measures (famine rates) in February and March (1877), when the later crop is usually cut. In July the price was 3 measures, or about 8 lbs., for the rupee (2s.). The roads were fortunately all in good order; much grain was imported both by the Government, as a reserve, and by private merchants, from Gooty (Gúti) and Adoni, the nearest railway stations. There was no difficulty in procuring carts sufficient to carry into the interior all the grain that the railway could bring from the coast; but this quantity was not equal to the demand, even at famine rates.

Karnúl was beyond question the worst of the famine-stricken Districts in the Madras Presidency. Relief works were set on foot in all parts of the District. The number of persons gratuitously fed in April 1877 was 44,887. Up to the end of July, nearly £600,000 was spent on famine relief in this District alone. Notwithstanding these efforts, the effects of the famine were appalling. The number of deaths recorded from 1st October 1876 to 30th June 1877, was 48,000, as compared with 19,974 in the corresponding period of the previous year; and it is certain that with a system of collecting vital statistics, which even in ordinary years is admittedly defective, these figures fail to represent the excessive mortality of that direful period. All fodder and pasturage having failed, large numbers of cattle were driven to the Nallamalai hills for grazing, but the mountain grass was soon exhausted. The poorer *ráyats* lost all their cattle, while the rich were scarcely able to save one-quarter of their herds. When at last the south-west monsoon

of 1877 broke in November, the few cart-cattle that survived were sent to field-work, and famine labourers drew the grain carts. This, however, did not last long. The rains ceased prematurely, prices rose once more, and famine recurred with the same severity as before; it was not till the end of 1878 that cultivation was practicable. The mortality caused by starvation, and the diseases incident thereto, will never be known. But the Census Report shows a decrease of population in Karnúl District between 1871 and 1881 of 250,339 souls, or 26·9 per cent., a greatly higher proportionate loss than in any other of the Madras famine-stricken Districts, Bellary coming next with a decrease of 19·86 per cent.

Industries.—The chief manufacture in Karnúl is weaving, which in 1881 gave employment to 15,122 persons, exclusive of women. The weavers conduct the manufacture in their own houses, partly on their own account, and partly for traders who advance money. Iron and steel are worked at the foot of the Nallamalai hills. Of late years this industry has greatly diminished, native iron being superseded for agricultural implements by imported iron. Diamond mines have been worked from early times in the quartzite beds of the Yerramalai hills, which are now leased by Government for about £20 a year. Quarrying stones is an important industry. Indigo and jaggery or country sugar are also manufactured. Weekly markets are held in most of the towns and important villages. One of the market rules relating to cotton twist, the chief article of sale in these fairs, is worth mention. When a twist is found to contain a less number of threads than the prescribed number, it is broken up by the people and thrown over trees. This summary vindication of commercial morality is sanctioned by custom, and is never appealed against.

Commerce.—There is little or no export of grain. Salt is imported from the eastern coast, but earth salt is largely manufactured. Cotton, indigo, tobacco, and hides, as well as cotton carpets and cotton cloth, are the chief exports. European piece-goods, areca-nut, cocoa-nut, and various dry condiments required for native households, are the chief imports.

Roads.—In 1882, there were 603 miles of made roads in the District, 8 miles of railroad, and 140 miles of navigable canal.

History.—From local records, it appears that Karnúl formed part of the old Telingána kingdom of Warangul. On the downfall of that dynasty, Karnúl seems to have became an independent principality. According to Wilson, a prince of Karnúl (Narasinha Ráo, son of Iswara Ráo) was adopted into the family of Vijayanagar, and afterwards raised to the throne of that mighty kingdom. There can, however, be no doubt that Karnúl formed part of the kingdom of Vijayanagar. In the reign of Achyúta Devá Rájá, the fort of Karnúl

was built, and the country was conferred in *jágir* on a relative named Rámrájá. After the battle of Tálikot in 1564, in which the Rájá of Vijayanagar was defeated by the allied Muhammadan kings of Bijápur, Golconda, and Ahmadnagar, Karnúl became a province of Bijápur. The first Subáhdár was an Abyssinian named Abdúl Wahâb, who converted the Hindu temples into mosques, and built a fine dome-shaped tomb in imitation of the one at Bijápur.

In 1651, after the conquest of Bijápur by Aurangzeb, Karnúl was conferred by him upon a Pathán named Kizír Khán in reward for military services. Kizír Khán was assassinated by his son Dáúd Khán; and on his death his two brothers, Ibráhím Khán and Alíf Khán, ruled the country jointly for six years, after which they were succeeded by Ibráhím Khán, the son of Alíf Khán, who built and strengthened the fort. The country then peaceably descended to his son and grandson. The grandson, Hímmat Khán Bahádur, accompanied Nazír Jang, the Nizám of Haidarábád (Hyderábád), in his expedition to the Karnátik along with the Nawábs of Cuddapah and Savanúr. Nazír Jang was there treacherously murdered by the Nawáb of Cuddapah, and his nephew was made Subáhdár of the Deccan. But the new Subáhdár failed to satisfy the expectations of the Pathán Nawábs, who had hoped for an extension of their territory. He was murdered at Rachoti in Cuddapah by Hímmat Khán Bahádur, who was himself cut to pieces by the infuriated soldiers. Salábat Jang, a nephew of Nazír Jang, was then made Subáhdár; and on his way back to Haidarábád with Bussy, assaulted Karnúl, and took it in 1752. But he afterwards restored the *jágír* for a sum of money to Munáwar Khán, brother of Hímmat Khán Bahádur. A short time afterwards, Haidar Alí overran Karnúl, and exacted a contribution of 2 *lákhs* of Gadval rupees.

In 1800, this District, together with Cuddapah and Bellary, was ceded to the British Government. From that time, the yearly tribute, reduced to 1 *lákh* of Gadval rupees, was punctually paid by Alíf Khán to the British Government. In 1815, Alíf Khán died, and his younger son, Muzaffar Jang, usurped the throne and seized the fort. Munáwar Khán, the eldest son, applied to the English for assistance; troops were sent from Bellary under Colonel Mariott, Muzaffar Jang was expelled, and Munáwar Khán placed on the *masnad*. On his death without heirs in 1823, his brother Muzaffar should have succeeded; but as he was on his way to Karnúl, within the limits of Bellary District, he murdered his wife, and was imprisoned in the Bellary fort, where he died in 1879.

In 1838, information reached Government that the Nawáb was engaged in treasonable preparations on an extensive scale. An inquiry showed that enormous quantities of arms and ammunition were stored in the fort and palace, for which no satisfactory explanation

could be given. The town and fort were captured after a sharp fight, and the Nawáb escaped to Zorápur, a small village on the east bank of the Hindri. His foreign soldiers would not allow him to depart until their arrears of pay were satisfied. The Nawáb then yielded himself prisoner, and was sent to Trichinopoli, where he was basely murdered by one of his own servants, whom he had charged with a petty theft. His territories, as well as the minor *jágírs* enjoyed by his relatives, were confiscated, and all the members of the family pensioned. After the resumption, the country was for a time administered by a Commissioner, and then by an Agent till 1858. In that year Karnúl was constituted a separate Collectorate, with the addition of certain tracts from Cuddapah and Bellary.

Revenue History.—Under native government, the lands were rented by *palegárs*, or hereditary barons, who paid a *peshkash*, and sometimes rendered military service. On the transfer of Cuddapah and Bellary, which then included the present Karnúl District, to the Company in 1800, the *palegárs* were summoned by Major (afterwards Sir) Thomas Munro to make their settlements, but many of them refused to attend, and proved troublesome. The lands were therefore resumed, and the *palegárs* pensioned. The country was then settled on a quasi-*ráyatwárí* system, but the rates were fixed with reference to the high assessment levied under Musalmán government. This system was tried till 1807, when it was superseded by a triennial, and afterwards by a decennial settlement. The assessment was collected through farmers or middlemen, who fell largely into arrears, and several of them were sent to jail. The renting system was thereupon discontinued; and in 1821 the *ráyatwárí* system was reverted to, but with a reduction in the rates of 25 per cent. on 'dry' and 'wet,' and 32 per cent. on garden lands. Since then no important changes have occurred, except that lands under wells and tanks constructed at private expense have been exempted from extra assessment, and that old well-land (or garden) rates have been assimilated to 'dry' rates.

In Karnúl Proper, the revenue administration under the Nawábs was conducted without system. The old *paláyams* and *zamíndárís* were arbitrarily resumed, and villages were rented to the head-men, who distributed lands among the *ráyats* according to their means, and raised or lowered rents at pleasure. In the first four years of British rule in this part of the District, the revenue decreased by about 1¼ *lákh*. The Agent proposed to revert to village rents, but the Government negatived the proposal. In the next four years, the revenue rose again to its former level. Where the rates were too high, they were reduced, or unassessed lands were given at lower rates to compensate for over-assessment on old lands, and in some cases remissions were also made, and the tax on special products was abolished, but the high rates on

garden and ordinary lands were retained. Prices, however, began to rise, and afforded to the *ráyats* a more certain relief than any reduction in the assessment could give, and saved the necessity for temporary remissions. The latter were accordingly abolished, and the revenue gradually increased. The remaining inequalities of the old rough settlement were finally removed by the new Survey and Settlement in 1866.

Administration. — The total gross revenue of Karnúl District in 1882–83 amounted to £158,375, of which £130,480 was derived from land. The expenditure on the civil and police administration is returned at £46,881. The District administration is carried on by 38 high officials, including a District Judge, with 3 subordinate *munsifs* for civil jurisdiction; a District Magistrate, with 17 subordinates for criminal cases; and 13 revenue officers. The total police force of the District in 1882–83 was 927 men, maintained at a cost of £14,729; proportion of police to area of District, 8·6 per square mile; of police to population, 1 to 782. The District contains a District jail and 13 subsidiary prisons. Daily average prison population, 90 prisoners.

Education.—The state of education in Karnúl is backward; only 3·7 per cent. of the population in 1871 being returned as able to read and write. In 1882, there were altogether 404 schools, with 6501 pupils. Girls' schools numbered 3, with 76 pupils. Pupils in primary vernacular schools numbered 5596, under Government inspection. The Census Report of 1881 returned a total of 6687 boys and 411 girls as under instruction, besides 26,094 males and 1401 females able to read and write, but not under instruction.

Medical Aspect.—The climate of Karnúl is on the whole healthy. The prevailing winds are west and north-east, and the mean temperature is about 85° F. The rains begin in June, and continue up to September. The total annual fall is 48 inches. In the villages along the foot of the Nallamalais, a severe type of fever prevails, accompanied by enlargement of the spleen. Other common diseases are rheumatic affections, conjunctivitis, and dysentery. Murrain and 'foot-and-mouth disease' are very prevalent among cattle. There is very little or no pasture land in the plains, and the cattle are generally grazed on the hills; but during the hot months the hill grass is burnt up, and the difficulty of feeding cattle becomes very great. In 1882, the registered death-rate per thousand was 15·5, and the registered birth-rate per thousand, 28. There are three dispensaries in the District—at Cumbum, Karnúl, and Nandiál. Total of persons treated during 1881, 38,354. [For further information regarding Karnúl, see Mr. Stack's *Memorandum upon the Current Land Settlement in the temporarily settled parts of British India*, p. 371. Also the *Madras*

Census Report for 1881; and the several *Administration and Departmental Reports* from 1880 to 1883.]

Karnúl (*Karnaul; Kandanul; Canoul* of Orme).—Town and municipality in Ramalkota *táluk* or Sub-division of Karnúl District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 15° 49′ 58″ N., long. 78° 5′ 29″ E. Population (1871) 25,579; (1881) 20,329, namely, 9637 males and 10,692 females. Number of houses, 5391. Hindus numbered 9995; Muhammadans, 10,007; Christians, 320; and 'others,' 7. The head-quarters of the District, with a Judge, Collector-Magistrate, and the usual District courts.

The town stands on a rocky spit of land (an island since the construction of a canal in 1865), at the junction of the Hindri and Tungabhadra rivers. The fort, whose erection is attributed to Gopál Ráya, was dismantled in 1865; the curtain was razed, but the four bastions and three of the gates still stand. Until 1871, troops were stationed in the fort, which also contained the palace of the Nawábs; it is still the residence of some of the members of the family. The mausoleum of Abdúl Wahab (the first Nawáb of Karnúl), a modern fountain presented by the Rájá of Vizianágaram, and some mosques, are the only other architectural features of the place. Karnúl at one time had an evil fame for cholera. But the municipality, which spends large sums yearly on sanitation, etc., has done much to redeem the reputation of the place. The town, however, has been much afflicted by endemic fever since the construction of the canal; this evil is probably to a great degree incurable, but it is aggravated by a faulty system of water-supply. In the famine of 1877-78, Karnúl and the surrounding country suffered terribly, owing to their isolated position. The nearest railway station is Gooty (a station on the north-west line of the Madras Railway), 60 miles distant; and it was only by extraordinary efforts that food was thrown into the town.

The population is half Hindu and half Musalmán; this unusual proportion marking the long rule of the Pathán Nawábs. The income of the municipality from taxation in 1883-84 was £1839; incidence of direct taxation, excluding tolls, 1s. 2d. per head.

Káro, North.—River of Bengal, tributary of the South Koel river; rises in Lohárdagá District, Chutiá Nágpur, drains the north-west corner of Singbhúm, and finally empties itself into the South Koel.

Káro, South.—Also a tributary of the South Koel; rises in the tributary State of Gángpur, in Chutiá Nágpur, crosses the north-west corner of the Orissa State of Keunjhar, then turns north draining part of Sarandá in Singbhúm, and falls into the Koel at Arandpur.

Károl.—Petty State of the Jháláwár Division of Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency, consisting of 2 villages, with two separate shareholders. Area of the petty State, 11 square miles, and population (1881) 1325.

Estimated revenue in 1881, £618; tribute of £70, 6s. is payable to the British Government, and £9, 6s. to the Nawáb of Junágarh. Károl village is situated 5 miles east of Chura station on the Bhaunagar-Gondal Railway.

Karond (or *Káláhandi*).—A feudatory chiefship attached to Sambalpur District, Central Provinces; lying between 19° 5′ and 20° 30′ N. lat., and between 82° 40′ and 83° 50′ E. long. Bounded on the north by Patná State; on the east and south by Jaipur (Jeypore) estate and Vizagapatam District in Madras; and on the west by Bindra Nawágarh and Khariar. Area, 3745 square miles; number of villages, 2461; houses, 53,527. Total population in 1881, 224,548, namely, males 116,918, and females 107,630. Average density, 60 persons per square mile. The population is largely composed of aboriginal Kandhs. Of the 2461 villages, 2439 contain less than five hundred inhabitants, 19 between five hundred and a thousand, and 3 upwards of a thousand. The chief place is Bhawání-patná, with a population of 3483.

The country is high, lying behind the Eastern Gháts, spurs from which project into Karond; while even the plains are intersected by ranges of hills. The light alluvial soil washed from their slopes is fertile and easily tilled, yielding heavy crops of almost every description. Teak is found to the north-west; and in the south, forests of *sarái* and other trees clothe the heights; but in many parts the *dáhya* or nomadic system of tillage has cleared the timber away. The State is well watered. Within its limits rise the Indravatí, a tributary of the Godávari; the Hatti and the Ret, tributaries of the Tel; while it is traversed throughout by the Tel, the Sán, and the Raúl, which after uniting their waters, fall into the Mahánadi beyond the limits of Karond.

Principal crops—rice, pulses, oil-seeds, sugar-cane, cotton, and the lesser millets. Of late years, wheat has been introduced, and the cultivation of the poppy has been abandoned. Oranges of fine quality are also grown. Communication has considerably improved of late years, and weekly markets have been established at the principal places; that at the chief town of Bhawání-patná being especially flourishing. Communication has been opened with Ráipur and Sambalpur by roads, which are traversed by carts in the dry season. The imports are salt, tobacco, cloth, and brass utensils; the exports consisting of grain, which is conveyed chiefly to Vizagapatam on pack bullocks. The people are fairly prosperous.

The late Rájá, Udit Pratáp Deo, a Rájput by caste, accompanied the Chief Commissioner to the imperial assemblage at Delhi, and obtained the title of Rájá Bahádur, with a salute of 9 guns as a personal distinction. Udit Pratáp Deo died in 1881, and was succeeded by his adopted son, the present (1884) Rájá, Raghu Kishore Deo, a

minor, now being educated at the Rájkumar College at Jabalpur. The administration of the State was entrusted to the late chief's senior Ráni. Shortly after these arrangements had been made, symptoms of disaffection began to show themselves amongst the Kandhs, an aboriginal tribe, consisting of about one-third of the whole population of the State. They rose against the Kultás, a Hindu agricultural caste, murdered between 70 and 80 of them, and plundered several of their villages. This outbreak necessitated the interference of the British Government. The disturbance was quelled by an armed police force under British officers, and seven of the ringleaders on conviction were summarily executed. The State was then taken under direct Government management, and will remain so until the young chief attains his majority.

The climate of Karond is in general good. The proximity of the *gháts* ensures a regular and abundant rainfall. The gross revenue is estimated to amount to £10,000; tribute of £360 is payable to the British Government.

Karor.—Head-quarters *tahsíl* of Bareli (Bareilly) District, North-Western Provinces, including Bareli city. Area, 330 square miles, of which 237 are cultivated. Population (1872) 279,774; (1882) 285,731, namely, males 152,341, and females 133,390, residing in 408 villages. Classified according to religion, Hindus numbered 192,890; Muhammadans, 90,251; and 'others,' 2590.

Wheat and gram occupy about four-fifths of the area of the spring (*rabí*) harvest. For the autumn (*kharíf*) harvest, *bájra*, or great millet, grown on the sandy uplands, covers more than twice as much ground as any other crop. Rice, millet, sugar-cane, and *joár* follow next in order. Sugar-refining is largely carried on, and forms an important industry. After supplying local wants, the surplus produce finds a sale at Bareli town and several villages where weekly markets are held. The *tahsíl* is amply provided with means ot export. Bareli city is the centre from which branches of the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway radiate west to Chandausí, south-east to Sháhjahánpur, north-east to Pilíbhit, and north to Katgodam (for Naini Tál). Metalled and unmetalled roads intersect the *tahsíl* in every direction, converging on Bareli town, besides minor tracks connecting the villages. Kúrmís and Kisáns constitute the bulk of the cultivating class. Of 554 estates which existed at the time of settlement, 334 were held in *zamíndárí* tenure. By far the greater part of the cultivated area is held by tenants with rights of occupancy. Land revenue (1882), £24,073; total Government revenue, £27,287; rental paid by cultivators, £45,048. The administrative staff consists of 1 Judge, 2 sub-Judges, and 3 *munsifs* in Bareli city; a District Sessions Judge, Magistrate-Collector, Joint-Magistrate, 3 Deputy Collectors,

a *tahsíldár*, and a cantonment magistrate. These officers preside over 5 civil and 8 criminal courts. The *tahsíl* contains 7 police circles (*thánás*), a regular police force of 397 officers and men, and a village police (*chaukídárs*) numbering 356.

Karor.—Town in the Leíah *tahsíl* of Dera Ismáil Khán District, Punjab. Lat. 31° 13′ 30″ N., long. 70° 59′ 15″ E. Population (1868) 5720. By 1881 it had decreased to 2723, namely, 1459 Hindus, 1263 Muhammadans, and 1 Sikh. Number of houses, 565. Situated on the old left bank of the river Indus, at some distance from the present channel. Said to be the earliest settlement in the cis-Indus portion of the District. The town is surrounded by a circular road, along which, as well as along the main approaches to the town, are planted avenues of *shisam* trees. The *bázár* is well paved, the shops having masonry fronts. A fair is held here annually in August in honour of a local saint, Makhdúm Lál Isán, whose handsome shrine is then visited by about 25,000 people. Karor is a third-class municipality, with an income in 1883–84 of £245, or an average of 1s. 9d. per head of the population. Head-quarters of a civil court (*munsifi*), and of a police station (*thána*).

Karor.—Town and municipality in Múltán District, Punjab.—*See* KAHROR.

Karra (*Kara; Corah*).—Town in Siráthu *tahsíl*, Allahábád District, North-Western Provinces; on the right bank of the Ganges, 42 miles by road north-west of Allahábád city. Lat. 25° 41′ N., long. 81° 24′ E. Formerly the capital of a native fief. In 1286 A.D., Muiz-ud-dín and his father, Nasír-ud-dín, held a meeting in the middle of the river, opposite Karra, and determined to unite their forces for an attack upon Delhi. During the 13th and 14th centuries, the town formed the head-quarters of the Musalmán governors in the Lower Doáb. Firoz Sháh was murdered here in 1295 by Alá-ud-dín. In 1338, Nizám Ma-in attempted to revolt at Karra, but was at once arrested by Aín-ul-Mulk and flayed alive. During the rains of 1346, Karra was occupied by the rebel cobbler of Gujrát, Takhi; but Muhammad Sháh followed him up from Ahmedábád and totally defeated him. In 1376, the fiefs of Karra, Mahoba, and Dalamau were united under one governor, called the Málík-ul-Shark. Akbar removed the seat of government to Allahábád, which thenceforth superseded Karra in importance. (*See* ALLAHABAD DISTRICT.)

An old fort, now in ruins, together with a number of tombs, still attests the former magnificence of Karra. But Asaf-ud-daulá, Nawáb of Oudh, destroyed the finest edifices, for the materials, which he employed in building his own works at Lucknow. Population (1881) 5080, namely, Muhammadans, 3026, and Hindus, 2054. Area of town site, 133 acres. The local market has a traffic with Oudh and Fatehpur, principally in grain, cloth, and paper. The manufacture of paper has

much declined of late years, owing principally to the establishment of the large paper factories at Serampur, near Calcutta. The place is still well known for its blankets. For conservancy and police purposes, a small house-tax is levied, which in 1881–82 realized £108. Post-office, police station, and station of the Great Trigonometrical Survey.

Karrak.—Salt-mine in Kohát District, Punjab; one of the series which extends along the valley of the Teri Toi. Colonized in the time of Aurangzeb, but not quarried till about 1800. The salt occurs as a massive rock, almost pure, and is excavated over a tract 1 mile in length. The produce is exported to Wazíristán and Kábul by the Povindah merchants. The salt quarried from these mines during the six years ending 1881–82 yielded an average annual income to Government in the shape of duty of £1105. The duty realized in 1883–84 amounted to £2099.

Karsiáng (*Kurseong*).—Sub-division of Dárjíling District, Bengal. Area, 442 square miles; number of towns and villages, 821; number of houses, 17,227. Population (1881) 90,178, namely, males 52,265, and females 37,913. Hindus numbered 78,545; Sikhs, 3; Muhammadans, 7243; Christians, 213; Buddhists, 3550; Kols and other aboriginal tribes, 624. Proportion of males in total population, 57·28; average density of population, 204 persons per square mile; villages per square mile, 1·83; houses per square mile, 390; persons per house, 5·2. This Sub-division comprises the two *thánás* or police circles of Karsiáng and the *tarái* or submontane tract at the foot of the hills. In 1883, it contained 2 civil and 3 magisterial courts, with a total regular police force of 88 officers and men.

Karsiáng.—Town, municipality, and head-quarters of Karsiáng Sub-division, Dárjíling District, Bengal; situated in the Lower Himálayas, on the road to Dárjíling. Lat. 26° 52′ 40″ N., long. 88° 19′ 30″ E. It is also an important station on the Dárjíling-Himálayan Railway, 30 miles from its starting-point at Silíguri, and 20 miles from its terminus at Dárjíling. Distance from Calcutta by rail, 226 miles. It forms a central point for the tea-planters between Dárjíling and the plains, has a good hotel, and is within easy reach of some of the most romantic scenery in the wonderful ascent made by the hill railway. Population (1881) 4343; municipal income (1883–84), £592; average incidence of taxation, 2s. 4½d. per head of the population.

Kartairi.—River of Madras Presidency; rising near the station of Utákamand (Ootacamund) in the Nílgiri Hills District. After flowing through the rich coffee-growing tract of Kartairi, at an elevation of about 6000 feet, it descends upon the plains in a series of beautiful waterfalls and cascades at Kullár, and finally falls into the Bhaváni near Mettapolliem, in lat. 11° 18′ N., and long. 76° 57′ E. A small but rising village has sprung up of late years on the saddle to the south of the

large waterfall, near the junction of the roads from Ootacamund, Kunúr (Coonoor), etc. A considerable trade in grain is carried on. Population (1881) 496, inhabiting 103 houses.

Kartak (or *Ketak*).—Petty State in Khándesh District, Bombay Presidency.—*See* DANG STATES.

Kartárpur.—Town and municipality in Jálandhar (Jullundur) *tahsíl*, Jálandhar District, Punjab. Lat. 31° 26′ 39″ N., long. 75° 32′ 28″ E. Situated on the Grand Trunk Road, 9 miles north of Jálandhar town. Hereditary residence of the Sikh Guru or High Priest, and therefore a place of great sanctity. Founded in 1588 by Guru Arjun, whose father, Guru Rám Dás, obtained the site from the Emperor Jahángír. When Arjun came to the place and desired to build his hut, a demon who inhabited the trunk of a tree would not permit any wood to be cut until the Guru promised that he should not be disturbed, but should receive worship for ever at the shrine. Population (1868) 10,953; (1881) 9260, namely, Hindus, 4958; Muhammadans, 3191; Sikhs, 1105; and 'others,' 6. Number of houses, 1946. A third-class municipality, with an income in 1881 of £501; average incidence of taxation, 1s. 1d. per head. Residence and gardens of the Guru, whose annual income from *jágírs* or land-grants amounts to about £1300. The present (1883) Guru is a minor, and his estate is under the management of the Court of Wards. The town is a place of inconsiderable trade, but it possesses a good paved *bázár*, police station, dispensary, post-office, middle school, and also indigenous schools.

Karumattampati.—Town in Palladam *táluk*, Coimbatore District, Madras Presidency; 16 miles east of Coimbatore town. Lat. 11° 7′ N., long. 77° 4′ E. Population (1872) 3374; (1881) 2963; number of houses, 677. Hindus numbered 2316; Christians, 604; and Muhammadans, 43. An early mission station, with a church built in 1660.

Karumattúr.—Town in Tírumangalam *táluk*, Madúra District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 9° 57′ N., long. 79° 59′ E. Population (1871) 5775; (1881) 4079, namely, 2128 males and 1951 females, occupying 488 houses. All, but three, are Hindus.

Kárumbhár.—Island in the Gulf of Cutch (Kachchh), Nawánagar State, Hálár Division of Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency. A coral island surrounded by a reef, which drops down into deep water. Along the shore the blown sand has accumulated and formed sandhills. The centre is a mangrove swamp, or in parts plain sand, cut up by creeks and overflowed at flood-tide. At the south-east corner, a little arable land is cultivated during the season by Wághars (originally Hindu pirates) from the mainland. The reefs of coral are covered with anemones and living coral, where mud has not silted over them; the mud kills the coral, but affords nourishment to the mangroves which grow readily on the coral reefs. On the north-west corner of

the island is a lighthouse; a whitewashed tower 30 feet high, with an ordinary fixed white light, burning kerosine oil; visible in clear weather at a distance of 10 miles. The arc of illumination is S. 59 W. to N. 18 W. Lat. 22° 26′ N., long. 69° 4′ E.

Kárun.—River of the Central Provinces; rising in the Kánker *zamíndárí*, in lat. 21° 10′ N., and long. 81° 25′ E. It flows past the town of Ráipur, and falls into the Seo near Simgá, in lat. 21° 34′ N., and long. 81° 44′ E. Though shallow and with a rocky bottom, it is navigable during the rains; and in times of extraordinary floods, stores from Calcutta have been landed by it 3 miles west of Ráipur.

Karungaláikudi.—Village in Melúr *táluk*, Madúra District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 9° 54′ 45″ N., long. 78° 33′ 30″ E. Population (1881) 3528, namely, Hindus, 3373; Muhammadans, 127; and Christians, 28.

Ka-rúp-pí.—Village in Amherst District, British Burma, situated on the left or south bank of the Ka-rúp-pí stream near its mouth. Population (1877) 1297; (1881) 2041.

Karúr. — *Táluk* or Sub-division of Coimbatore District, Madras Presidency. In the south-east corner of the District, the Erode branch of the South Indian Railway passes through the *táluk*. Area, 613 square miles; 97 towns and villages. Population (1881) 177,155, namely, 85,385 males and 91,770 females, occupying 39,720 houses. Number of persons per square mile, 289. Hindus numbered 167,899, or 94·8 per cent. of the population; Muhammadans, 8305; and Christians, 951. The *táluk* contained in 1881 the following villages with more than 3000 inhabitants: — Nerur (5610, living in 1288 houses), Gúdalúr (4944, living in 1208 houses), Uppidamangalam (4821, living in 1045 houses), Sendamangalam (4330, living in 898 houses), Palapatti (6351, living in 1368 houses), Velliyanai (5386, living in 1214 houses), Pavitram (3621, living in 870 houses), Punjaipúgalar (3215, in 764 houses), and Venjamangudalúr (3192, in 637 houses). In 1883, there were 1 civil and 2 criminal courts; police stations (*thánás*), 7; regular police, 62 men. Land revenue, £28,919.

Karúr (*Caroor* or *Karúrú;* Κάρουρα of Ptolemy; Κάρουρα βασίλειον Κηροβόθρου; at different periods called *Vanji* and *Garbhapúri*).—Town and municipality in Coimbatore District, Madras Presidency; situated on the left bank of the Amrávati river, near its confluence with the Káveri. Lat. 10° 57′ 42″ N., long. 78° 7′ 16″ E. Population (1872) 9378; (1881) 9205, namely, 4468 males and 4737 females, occupying 1539 houses. Hindus numbered 8176, or 88·8 per cent. of the population; Muhammadans, 733; and Christians, 296. Head-quarters of the Karúr *táluk;* with post-office, railway station, court, etc.

Karúr was the capital of the ancient kingdom of Chera or Eastern Kerála. During the struggles between the rival dynasties of Chera,

Chola, and Pandya, it changed hands more than once. With the rise of the Náyaks, Karúr fell to the kingdom of Madúra; but it was frequently attacked and occupied by the Mysore armies, until towards the end of the 17th century it was finally annexed to the latter kingdom, and became its most important frontier post. In 1736, Chánda Sáhib besieged it unsuccessfully.

In the year 1760, the town was captured by the English after a short siege, and held by them till 1768, when it was retaken by Haidar Alí, to whom its possession was confirmed by treaty in the following year. In 1783, Colonel Lang held the fort for a few months. It was a third time captured in 1790 by General Medows, and again restored in 1792. At the close of the second Mysore war, in 1799, which ended with the death of Tipú Sultán, Karúr was finally ceded to the English, and was abandoned as a military station in 1801. The ruins of this oft-contested fort remain, and, with the old temple, are the principal points of interest in the town. The fort, however, is in some places nearly obliterated. The Jesuit fathers established a mission here as early as 1639.

Karúr is now a busy market town, with an excellent road system converging on it. It is a station on the Erode branch of the South Indian Railway, and is an important centre of traffic. The municipality had in 1882–83 an income from taxation, excluding Imperial licence tax, of £861, the incidence of taxation being 1s. per head of the population.

Kárvir.—A local name of KOLHAPUR, *q.v.* Chief town of KOLHAPUR STATE. Kárvir has been used by the natives for the Kolhápur capital from the time of the early Deccan dynasties.

Karwaitnagar.—*Zamíndárí* estate in North Arcot District, Madras Presidency; situated between 13° 4′ and 13° 36′ 30″ N. lat., and between 79° 17′ and 79° 53′ E. long. Area, 680 square miles; number of villages, 792; population (1871) 289,894; (1881) 275,830, namely, males 139,882, and females 135,948, occupying 41,075 houses. Average density of population, 406 persons per square mile. Hindus in 1881 numbered 272,101, or nearly 99 per cent. of the total population; Muhammadans, 3668; Christians, 54; and 'others,' 7.

The estate is bounded north by Chandragíri, east by Kálahastí and Chengalpat, south by Wálájá-pet, and west by Chittúr. The region is hilly, and is traversed by the north-west line of the Madras Railway. Timber is cut on the Nagari Hills, and sent by rail to Madras. Sixty per cent. of the land is uncultivable; one-half the remainder, or about 100,000 acres, is under the plough. Indigo is largely cultivated. The *zamíndárí* is described in Orme as Bommarauze's country, Bommarauze being a leading *palegár* in the period of the early Karnátik wars. Permanent revenue or tribute (*peshkash*), £18,049; estimated gross

rental, about £60,000. A very fertile tract, with a hardy and intelligent peasantry. Sub-magistrates are stationed at Puttúr and Tirutáni, the head-quarters of divisions of the *zamíndárí*. The chief manufacture is weaving. There are 117 miles of road in the estate.

Karwaitnagar. — Principal town in Karwaitnagar estate, North Arcot District, Madras Presidency. Situated seven miles west of Puttúr, and a station on the north-west line of the Madras Railway. Population (1871) 6894; (1881) 5874. Hindus numbered 5317; Muhammadans, 554; and Christians, 3. Karwaitnagar was formerly strongly fortified, and surrounded by a broad wall, eight feet high, having two gates, one on the south and one on the west. Only traces of these works now remain.

Kárwár. — Sub-division of North Kánara District, Bombay Presidency. Area, 281 square miles; contains 1 town and 51 villages, with 8590 houses. Population (1872) 45,131; (1881) 47,742, or 23,738 males and 24,004 females. Hindus numbered 40,886; Muhammadans, 2909; Christians, 3896; Jews, 21; and 'others,' 30.

The Sub-division lies in the north-west of the District, with a coast-line of eighteen miles. The Kálinadi flows from east to west through the centre, and as it enters the sea throws up a bar of sand impassable to any but small craft. Along both banks of the river, broad belts of rice land, broken by groves of palms and other fruit trees, stretch east to near the Sahyádri hills. The soil on the plains is sandy, and near the hills is much mixed with granite. On the banks of the Kálinadi, and along the sea-shore, are large tracts of *gajni* land, a black alluvial deposit charged with salt and liable to be flooded at high tides. To bring these *gajni* lands under tillage, a strong and costly wall must be built to keep out the sea. A heavy rainfall is required to sweeten the land, and then, without much manure and with due care, rich crops may be raised. Throughout the Sub-division the villages are not gathered into streets, but the houses are scattered along narrow lanes, standing in shady cocoa-palm gardens, some tiled and some thatched, each with its well, bathing-place, and cattle-shed. Here and there is a well-built temple, and a few villages have a Roman Catholic church.

The Sub-division contains three ports, namely SADASHIVGARH, KARWAR, and CHENDIA, which are grouped for customs purposes into the Kárwár division. The value of imports of merchandise and treasure (exclusive of Government stores and treasure) in 1882-83 from Indian ports, British or other, amounted to £219,493, and from foreign ports £10,947, making a total of £230,440. The exports to Indian ports, British or other, stood at £356,117, and to foreign ports £4635, the total being £360,752. The average annual value of the trade at the Kárwár customs division, during the five years ending 1882-83, is returned as follows: — Imports,

£204,280, and exports, £535,143. The number of vessels, steam, sailing, and native craft, which entered with cargoes the three ports of the customs division in 1882–83 from Indian ports, British or other, was 949, tons 172,145, of which 118 were steamers, tons 157,621; and from foreign ports 5, all sailing, tons 385. The vessels which cleared with cargoes for Indian ports, British or other, numbered 995, tons 180,925, of which 117 were steamers, tons 156,097; and for foreign ports one, a steamer, tons 1514. The chief imports, most of which are for local use, are wheat, tobacco, and European cloth. The exports are chiefly cotton, native hand-made cloth, and husked and unhusked rice.

Kárwár (*Carwar; Kádwád*).—Chief town, port, and municipality of Kárwár Sub-division, and the head-quarters of North Kánara District, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 14° 50′ N., long. 74° 14′ E.; 50 miles south-east of Goa, and 295 miles south-east of Bombay. Population (1872) 13,263; (1881) 13,761, namely, males 7155, and females 6606. Hindus numbered 10,740; Muhammadans, 1099; Christians, 1848; Jains, 31; Pársís, 17; and 'others,' 26. The municipal income of the town in 1882–83 was £963, of which £760 were derived from taxation; average incidence of taxation, 1s. 1½d. per head of the population.

History.—Old Kárwár, on the banks of the Kálinadi, 3 miles to the east of Kárwár (the new town), was once an important place of commerce. During the first half of the 17th century, the Kárwár revenue superintendent, or *desái*, was one of the chief officers of the Bijápur kingdom, of which it formed a part. In 1638, the fame of the pepper of Sonda induced Sir William Courten's Company to open a factory at Kárwár. In 1660 the factory was prosperous, exporting the finest muslins in Western India; the weaving country was inland to the east, at Hubli and other centres, where as many as 50,000 weavers were employed. Besides the great export of muslin, Kárwár provided pepper, cardamoms, cassia, and coarse blue cotton cloth (*dungari*). In 1665, Sivají, the founder of the Maráthá power, exacted a contribution of £112 from the English. In 1673, the *faujdár*, or military governor, of Kárwár laid siege to the factory. In 1764, Sivají burnt Kárwár town; but the English were treated civilly, and no harm was done to the factory. In 1676, the factory suffered from the exactions of local chiefs, and the establishment was withdrawn in 1679. It was restored in 1682 on a larger scale than before. In 1684, the English were nearly driven out of Kárwár; the crew of one of two small vessels having stolen and killed a cow. In 1685, the Portuguese stirred the *desáis* of Kárwár and Sonda to revolt. During the last ten years of the 17th century, the Dutch made every attempt to depress the English pepper trade; and in

1697 the Maráthás laid Kárwár waste. In 1715, the old fort of Kárwár was pulled down, and SADASHIVGARH was built by the Sonda chief. The new fort seriously interfered with the safety of the English factory; and owing to the hostility of the Sonda chief, the factory was removed in 1720. The English, in spite of their efforts to regain the favour of the Sonda chiefs, were unable to obtain leave to re-open their factory at Kárwár till 1750. The Portuguese in 1752 sent a fleet and took possession of Sadáshivgarh. As the Portuguese claimed the monopoly of the Kárwár trade, and were in a position to enforce their claim, the English agent was withdrawn. In 1801, old Kárwár was in ruins.

The new town dates from after the transfer of North Kánara District to the Bombay Presidency in 1862. Before the transfer, it was a mere fishing village. The present town and neighbouring offices and residences are in the lands of six villages, and within the municipal limits of the town are nine villages. A proposal was strenuously urged in Bombay to connect Kárwár by a railway with the interior, so as to provide a seaport for the southern cotton districts. Between 1867–74, the hope that a railway from Kárwár to Hubli would be sanctioned raised the value of building sites at Kárwár, and led to the construction of many warehouses and dwellings. The scheme has been finally abandoned in favour of the Marmagoa-Hubli line. As soon as this line is opened, the importance of Kárwár, as a seaport and market town, will greatly diminish, as all cotton, grain, and spices will be sent to MARMAGOA. Already (1882) several old Kárwár merchants have left for Goa, and many more are expected to follow.

Kárwár is the only safe harbour between Bombay and Cochin during all seasons of the year. In the bay is a cluster of islets called the Oyster Rocks, on the largest of which, Devgarh island, a lighthouse has been built, 210 feet above the sea, containing a white fixed dioptric light of the first order, on a white granite tower 72 feet high, visible 25 miles. There are two smaller islands in the bay (180 and 120 feet above the level of the sea), which afford good shelter to native craft and small vessels during the strong north-west winds that prevail from February to April. From the Kárwár post-office on a white flagstaff, 60 feet from the ground and 65 feet above high-water, is displayed a red fixed ship's light, visible five miles; with the light bearing east-south-east, a vessel can anchor in three to five fathoms. About five miles south-west and two miles from the mainland, Anjidiva rises steep from the sea, dotted with trees and the houses of its small Portuguese settlement. Coasting steamers belonging to the British India Steam Navigation Company call weekly at Kárwár throughout the year. These steamers generally make the trip between Kárwár and Bombay in 48 hours. The average annual value of the trade at

Kárwár port, not of the Kárwár customs division, during the five years ending 1880–81, is returned as follows:—Imports, £232,306, and exports, £278,073. The imports for 1880–81 amounted to £187,882; and the exports to £270,116. Courts, post and telegraph offices, civil hospital, etc.

Karwí (*Kirwee*).—Sub-division of Bánda District, North-Western Provinces; situated between 24° 53′ and 25° 19′ N. lat., and between 80° 50′ and 81° 18′ E. long. Comprises the three *tahsíls* of Karwí, Kamásin, and Mau (Mhow), also known as the Tirohán, Darsenda, and Chibu *tahsíls*. This tract contains an area of 1292 square miles, and consists of two distinct portions, the mountains of the south, and the level plain extending from the foot of the hills northward to the Jumna. The latter region is well wooded and widely cultivated. Formerly a separate *munsifi* existed at Karwí, but the jurisdiction has recently been added to that of the subordinate Judge's Court at Bánda. The Joint Magistrate for the Sub-division has his station at the town of KARWI, where an assistant superintendent of police is also stationed.

Karwí (more properly *Tirohán*).—South-eastern *tahsíl* of Bánda District, North-Western Provinces; consisting chiefly of rugged sandstone hills, the outliers of the Vindhyan system, and traversed by the Jabalpur (Jubbulpore) branch of the East Indian Railway, which has two stations within its boundaries, at Mánikpur and Markundi. Area, 572·8 square miles, of which 147·3 square miles are cultivated. Population stationary, being returned at 85,323 in 1872, and 85,318 in 1881. Classified according to religion, the population in the latter year consisted of—Hindus, 82,205; Muhammadans, 3086; Jains, 14; and 'others,' 13. Number of villages, 189, of which 137 contained less than 500 inhabitants. Land revenue, £9456; total Government revenue, £10,591; rental paid by cultivators, £15,885. In 1884, the Sub-division contained 2 criminal courts, with 4 police stations (*thánás*); strength of regular police, 74 men; and village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 263.

Karwí.—Town in Bánda District, North-Western Provinces, and head-quarters of the Sub-division and *tahsíl*. Lat. 25° 12′ 10″ N., long. 80° 56′ 50″ E.; situated on the river Páisuni; distant from Bánda 44 miles south-east, from Allahábád about 60 miles west. Population (1881) 4167, chiefly Hindus. For police and conservancy purposes, Karwí and the neighbouring village of Tirohán (population 2751) form one municipality under Act xx. of 1856. In 1805, Karwí had a cantonment for British troops; and in 1829, it became the principal residence of the Peshwá's representative, who lived in almost regal state, and built several beautiful temples and wells. Numerous traders from the Deccan were thus attracted to Karwí. During the Mutiny, Náráyan Ráo, after the murder at Bánda of Mr. Cockerell, Joint Magistrate of Karwí, assumed the government, and retained his inde-

pendence for eight months amid the subsequent anarchy. The accumulations of his family constituted the great treasure afterwards so famous as 'the Kirwee and Bánda Prize Money.' It was kept in a vault of the Bára, a large building, forming the palace of Náráyan Ráo's family. The greater part of their possessions were afterwards confiscated for rebellion, and the Bára now serves as a *tahsíli*, police station, and school-house. Balwant Ráo, the present head of the family, still retains a considerable estate, though small by comparison with that of his predecessors. Since the Mutiny, the prosperity of Karwí has gradually declined. Station of a Joint Magistrate and an assistant District superintendent of police. The jurisdiction of the *munsifi* has been removed to Bánda. Magnificent temple and tank, with masonry well attached, known as the Ganesh Bágh, and built by Benáik Ráo in 1837. Five mosques, and as many Hindu temples. Government dispensary, post-office. Trade unimportant.

Kasái (*Cossye*).—River of Bengal; rises in the north-west of Mánbhúm District, in lat. 23° 28′ 30″ N., and long. 85° 58′ 15″ E. It follows a very winding south-easterly and easterly course, through Mánbhúm, Bánkurá, and Midnapur, till it falls into the Haldí in the latter District, about 20 miles above the confluence of that river with the Húglí. During the rainy season, the Kasái is navigable by boats of 2 tons burden from its mouth to some distance above the town of Midnapur, which is situated on its north or left bank; but in the dry weather it is nowhere navigable by large boats, except for a few miles above its confluence with the Haldí. A considerable floating trade in timber, chiefly *sál*, is carried on during the rainy season, from the south of Mánbhúm into Midnapur. Its only tributary is the united stream of the Kumárí and Tetká, which under the former name joins the Kasái at Ambikánagar in Bánkurá District.

Kásálang.—Tributary of the Karnaphulí river, rising in the extreme north of the Chittagong Hill Tracts, Bengal. It flows southwards, receiving two small tributaries in its course, one on either bank, and falls into the Karnaphulí at KASALANG village, in lat. 22° 44′ N., long. 92° 19′ E. Navigable by small boats for about eight days' journey from its mouth.

Kásálang.—Village in the District of the Chittagong Hill Tracts, Bengal; situated at the confluence of the Kásálang river with the Karnaphulí. Lat. 22° 44′ N., long. 92° 19′ 30″ E. One of the principal marts for the sale of hill produce. Kásálang was formerly the frontier station in the direction of the Lushái Hills, and an annual fair was held here which was attended by the local officers, for the purpose of keeping up friendly intercourse between the independent chiefs and the people within the District. A *darbár* or reception was yearly held on this occasion by the District officer, at which gifts were distributed to the

Kukís and other visitors. After the Lusházi campaign of 1871–72, the frontier line was extended considerably farther east, and the frontier head-quarters station was removed from Kásálang to Demágirí, a post on the Karnaphulí river about 30 miles above the Barkúl rapids. Since that date the annual fair and *darbár* has been held at Demágirí, instead of at Kásálang.

Kásaraghat.—Pass over the range of the Western Gháts, boundary of Thána and Násik Districts, Bombay Presidency.—*See* THALGHAT.

Kásaragod (*Cassergode*).—*Táluk* or Sub-division in South Kánara District, Madras Presidency. Area, 1032 square miles. Population (1881) 243,881, namely, 120,857 males and 123,024 females, dwelling in 45,287 houses, scattered over 243 towns and villages. Number of persons per square mile, 229·2. Hindus numbered 191,343; Muhammadans, 46,953; Christians, 5217; and 'others,' 368. The *táluk* contains the following places with a population under five and over two thousand:—Pallakorkod (4191, living in 670 houses), Charvattúr (4235, in 847 houses), Kánhangád (4581, in 831 houses), Madikai (3513, in 780 houses), Muliyar (3003, in 613 houses), Perdál (3932, in 672 houses), Kumbadáje (3040, in 541 houses), Adúr (2831, in 581 houses), Báyár (2601, in 453 houses), Vittal (2547, in 479 houses), and Kolnád (2410, in 427 houses). There are in the *táluk* 1 civil and 2 criminal courts; police stations (*thánás*), 16; regular police, 112 men. Land revenue (1883), £24,367. [This article and the following were given under their old spelling as CASSERGODE in volume iii. But as new materials have been received for the *táluk* since volume iii. went to press, the opportunity is now taken of inserting the additional information here, under the proper spelling of the word.]

Kásaragod (*Kasargodie*, *Cassergode*, '*Kangercote*' *of the Tohfat-ul-Majáhidín*).—Town and port, South Kánara District, Madras Presidency. Situated on the Chandragiri river, in lat. 12° 29′ 50″ N., and long. 75° 2′ 10″ E. Population (1872) 6416; number of houses, 1178. Not returned in the Census of 1881. Kásaragod formed the southernmost post of the ancient Tuluva kingdom, and still contains a ruined fort of the Ikheri kings. In 1883–84, the imports were valued at £8427, and the exports at £7077.

Kasauli (*Kussowlee*).—Cantonment and convalescent depôt in Simla District, Punjab; situated on the crest of a hill, overlooking the Kálka valley; distant from Ambálá (Umballa) 45 miles north, from Simla station 32 miles south-west. Lat. 30° 53′ 13″ N., long. 77° 0′ 52″ E. The cantonment was formed in 1844–45, on land acquired from the Native State of Bíja, and barracks were erected in the same year. Since that date, detachments of European troops have continuously occupied the station, and many private visitors also arrive during the summer months. The Kasauli Hill, a summit of the Subáthu group, has an

elevation of 6322 feet above sea-level, and commands magnificent views over the plains to the south-west, and towards the snowy range of the Himálayas on the north. Although healthy under ordinary circumstances, the proximity to the plains renders Kasauli liable to epidemics. Outbreaks of cholera occurred in 1845, 1857, 1867, 1872, and 1875. Defective water-supply. Permanent station of an Assistant Commissioner; head-quarters of the Commissioner of Ambálá during the summer months. The population at the time of the Census in February 1881 numbered 2807, namely, Hindus, 1825; Muhammadans, 625; Sikhs, 13; Jain, 1; 'others,' mainly Christians, 343. During the summer months the population is much higher. Court-houses, branch treasury, lock-up, staging bungalow, two hotels. The trade is confined to the supply of necessaries and European commodities for the troops and summer visitors.

Kasbá (or *Jessor*).—Chief town and administrative head-quarters of Jessor District, Bengal.—*See* JESSOR.

Kasbá.—Large trading village in Bardwán District, Bengal; situated on the Damodár river, which is here crossed by a ferry on the road to Sonámukhí. Lat. 23° 21′ N., long. 87° 33′ 30″ E.

Kasbá.—Town in Purniah District, Bengal; situated on the road from Purniah to Arariyá, about 9 miles from the civil station, and 4 miles from the old town of Purniah. Lat. 25° 51′ N., long. 87° 34′ 41″ E. The population, which in 1872 numbered 6288, had fallen by 1881 to 5124. Classified according to religion, the population in the latter year consisted of—Hindus, 5040, and Muhammadans, 84. Area of town site, 392 acres. Kasbá forms the largest centre of the rice trade in Purniah District. It is chiefly inhabited by Sunrís, who collect unhusked rice from the northern tracts of Purniah and the submontane *morang* in Dárjíling, for export to Calcutta. Large vernacular school, with 150 pupils. Police outpost station.

Kásganj.—Northern *tahsíl* of Etah District, North-Western Provinces, lying between the Ganges and the Káli Nadí, and traversed by two main branches of the Lower Ganges Canal. Area, 500 square miles, of which 372 square miles are cultivated. The population, which in 1872 numbered 241,335, had by 1881 fallen to 216,906, showing a decrease of 24,429, or 10·1 per cent., in the nine years. Classified according to religion, the population in 1881 consisted of—Hindus, 191,372; Muhammadans, 25,190; Jains, 277; and 'others,' 67. Number of villages, 477, of which 360 contained less than five hundred inhabitants. Land revenue, £31,667; total Government revenue, £35,514; rental paid by cultivators, £67,742; incidence of Government revenue per acre, 1s. 11¾d.

Kásganj. — Town, municipality, and chief commercial centre of Etah District, North-Western Provinces; situated on a raised site, 1¼

mile north-west of the Kálí Nadí; distant from Etah town 19 miles north. Lat. 27° 48′ 5″ N., long. 78° 41′ 30″ E. Population (1872) 15,764; (1881) 16,535, namely, males 8709, and females 7826. Classified according to religion, the population in 1881 consisted of—Hindus, 12,050; Muhammadans, 4398; and Jains, 87. Area of town site, 149 acres. Municipal income in 1881–82, £1450, of which £1321 was derived from taxes, mostly octroi; average incidence of taxation, 1s. 7⅛d. per head. Well-built, prosperous town, with handsome shops, and drained and metalled streets, with a good proportion of brick houses, shaded by fine trees. A metalled road runs through the centre of the town from north to south, and forms the principal *bázár*, while a second intersects it from east to west. The eastern quarter, inhabited by the poorer Hindus, is less well kept. A fine mosque, remarkable for its curious roof and numerous minarets, adorns the Muhammadan quarter. The town owes its origin to Khán Bahádur Khán, the founder of Alíganj, under the Oudh Wazírs. His successors sold it to Col. James Gardner, from whom it passed into the hands of his agent, the late Rájá Dílsukh Rái. The public buildings include a municipal hall, dispensary, police station, *tahsíli*, post-office, good school, and *munsifi*. Brisk and increasing trade in cotton, sugar, *ghí*, indigo seed, and country produce. Increasing population; large business in grain and sugar.

Kashmír and Jamu (*Cashmere* and *Jummoo*).—Native State, politically subordinate to the Government of India, constituting the territories of the Mahárájá of Kashmír; extending from 32° 17′ to 36° 58′ N. lat., and from 73° 26′ to 80° 30′ E. long. Area, 80,900 square miles, with a population returned in 1873 at 1,534,972 persons. No later Census has up to the present date (1885) been carried out in Kashmír. The State is bounded on the north by some petty semi-independent hill chiefships, mostly subordinate to Kashmír, and by the Karakoram mountains; on the east by Chinese Tibet; on the south and west by the Punjab Districts and the Hazára country. The State comprises, in addition to the Districts of Kashmír Proper, Jamu, and Púnch:—the Governorships of Ladákh and Gilghit, including the Districts of Dárdistán, Baltistán, Leh, Tiláil, Suru, Zanskar, Rúpshu, and others. The Provinces of Kashmir and Jamu form the more important part of the State in a general view, and are here chiefly dwelt upon.

History.—The history of Kashmír is a task beyond the limits of this work. Valuable light has been thrown on its early periods by the records of the Chinese pilgrims in the *Si-yu-ki.* Like other outlying Provinces of India, its annals divide themselves into four eras:—(1) Pre-Buddhistic; (2) Buddhistic; (3) Hindu; and (4) Muhammadan. First comes an age of pre-historic monsters, probably representing the non-

Aryan races, Nágás, and others. Tradition relates that the Kashmír valley was at first altogether a lake, inhabited by a monster, Yaldeo, who was driven out by a Rishi. The holy man gave his name to the country left by the subsidence of the waters upon the removal of Yaldeo. According to this account, the first inhabitants were Indo-Aryans, and the object of their worship, the Sun-God. Buddhism found in Kashmír an asylum, from which its influence radiated north, south, east, and west. Tartar devastations and invasions occupy a long period of its history. Mahmúd of Ghazní entered the valley in the eleventh century; the Dárdistán chiefs and Tibetan kings made incursions, and forcibly married its Hindu princesses; Túrkistán sent down its hordes. The old Hindu *ráj* found its final catastrophe in the death of the Queen of the last sovereign, who upbraided the Muhammadan usurper, and stabbed herself.

Muhammadanism was introduced into Kashmír in the 14th century A.D., during the reign of Shams-ud-dín. In 1586, the country was conquered by Akbar, and became an integral part of the Mughal Empire. In 1752 it was subjugated by the Afghán, Ahmad Sháh, the founder of the Durání dynasty; and it remained under Afghán sway until 1819, when it was conquered by the Sikhs. From that time it was ruled by a governor appointed by the Mahárájá of the Punjab, until the Sikh war in 1845. Ghuláb Singh, who had begun life as a horseman under the Mahárájá Ranjít Singh, but by distinguished conduct had raised himself to independent command, was presented with the principality of Jamu, whence, nominally on behalf of the Lahore State, he soon extended his authority over his Rájput neighbours, and eventually into Ladákh and Baltistán. In the revolution which preceded the outbreak of the Sikh war, he was elected Minister of the Khálsá, and he took an important part in the negotiations which followed the battle of Sobráon. The results were, that he was enabled to secure his power by a separate treaty with the English at Amritsar (Umritsar) in March 1846, by which, on payment of 75 *lákhs* of rupees, or £750,000, he was confirmed in possession of the territory which he had held as feudatory of the Sikhs, and also obtained the Province of Kashmír.

By this treaty he bound himself to acknowledge the supremacy of the British Government, to refer all disputes with neighbouring States to its arbitration, to assist British troops when required, and never to take or retain in his service any British subject or the subject of any European or American State, except with the consent of the British Government. The Mahárájá sent a contingent of troops and artillery to co-operate with the British forces against Delhi during the Mutiny of 1857. Ghuláb Singh died in August 1857, and was succeeded by his eldest son, Mahárájá Ranbhír Singh, G.C.S.I., who is by caste a Dogra Rájput, and was born about 1832. The Mahárájá of Kashmír is

entitled to a personal salute of 21 guns, and has received a *sanad* giving adoptive rights. As a token of the supremacy of the British Government, he pays an annual tribute of 1 horse, 25 lbs. of *pashm* and fine wool, and 3 pairs of shawls. The military force of the State consists of about 19,000 men, including 5000 irregular troops, with 16 batteries of artillery, two of which are horsed; the cavalry, which is used principally for escort duties, consists of 2 regiments, mostly stationed near Jamu. The Mahárája was recently presented by the British Government with a mountain battery; and on the occasion of the Delhi Darbár in January 1877, he was gazetted a general in the British Army, and created a Counsellor of the Empress. Mahárájá Ranbhír Singh died 12th September 1885, and was succeeded by his son, Pertáb Singh, at whose court a British Resident will be stationed.

Physical Aspects.—The general aspect of the valley of Kashmír is that of a basin, encircled on every side by lofty mountains. In the middle is an extensive alluvial tract intersected by the JEHLAM (Jhelum) and its numerous tributaries, which flow down from the mountains and find their way by the sole channel of the Jehlam through the Báramúla Pass to the plains of the Punjab. The elevation of this valley is about 5200 feet above the sea.

Besides the low alluvial tract extending along the banks of the Jehlam, there occur extensive plateaux of slight elevation, stretching from the mountains at various distances into the plains. These plateaux are known as *karewas* or *wudars*. Their soil for the most part is a loam or loamy clay, containing remains of fresh-water fishes and molluscs, which indicate a lacustrine or fluvial origin. They are divided from each other by ravines of from 100 to 300 feet in depth. Occasionally they are entirely surrounded by lower ground, but more generally they connect with some of the mountains that bound the valley. Over the surface of the *karewas*, water has sometimes been brought for irrigation, and then a fertile tract is the result; but more commonly the cultivation depends on rain alone, and in that case the yield is precarious. The slopes of the hills between the flat ground and the limit of forest are a mixture of cultivation, good grazing grounds, and forests of cedars, pines, firs, etc. The lowest of the beds forming the *karewas* have been considered to be of the same geological age as the topmost Siwáliks, while the higher beds are of more modern origin. The portion of the valley unoccupied by the *karewas* is covered with a more modern alluvium, often containing objects of human workmanship. The southern and more inhabited portion of Kashmír includes the lower half of the Kishen Gangá valley and the whole District south of the snowy range that separates the drainage of the Indus from that of the Jehlam and Chenáb. In this region the hills are covered with pine forests interspersed with pastures;

the banks of the streams are green with cultivation; villages are connected with each other by roads; while the principal valley is crowded with objects of interest, and is fertile and beautiful in a high degree.

Mountains.—The lofty mountains which surround Kashmír include in some places large glaciers between their spurs, and are covered with snow for nearly eight months in the year. The glacier of Biafo on the north-west border is 35 miles long. The highest ascertained peaks in the Pansál range are Múlí, 14,952 feet, and Ahertatopa, 13,042 feet; and in the north of Kashmír, Haramúk, 16,015 feet. Captain Montgomerie, R.E., in his account of the Survey, states: 'On the Pír Panjál peaks, the electricity was so troublesome, even when there was no storm, that it was found necessary to carry a portable lightning conductor for the protection of the theodolite.' Beyond the limits of Kashmír, the isolated peak of Nanga Parbat, or Dayarmur—in lat. 35° 14′ 21″ N. and long. 74° 37′ 52″ E., 26,629 feet above the sea—forms a noble object. Its other name is Daiarmur; and it stands midway between the Kashmír valley and the river Indus. Other remarkable peaks close by are the Ser and Mer, the former 23,410 feet high, and the latter 23,250 feet. The range enclosing the Kashmír valley bears different names in different parts—the snowy Pansál on the east, the Fateh Pansál and Pansál of Banihál on the south, the Pír Panjál on the west, the Drawar mountains on the north, and Haramúk and Sonamarg mountains on the north-east. The soft and beautiful scenery of the valley is on the southern side, where the mountains slope gently. On the north the country is wild and sublime, the mountains rising in rugged precipices of stupendous height, down the bare sides of which the numerous streams leap in prolonged cataracts. Here are found some of the largest glaciers and highest peaks on the surface of the globe; long flat valleys, the lowest as high as the Faulhorn in Switzerland; and many habitable spots at an elevation as great nearly as that of Mont Blanc. The average height of this northern mountain barrier is from twenty to twenty-six thousand feet. One peak stands 28,250 feet out of the Karakoram range.

The beauties of the Kashmír valley have been so often celebrated in prose and verse, that further allusion to them here would be out of place. Moore, Vigne, Jacquemont, and flocks of annual visitors to Srínagar have rendered its scenery as well known as the most picturesque spots of Switzerland or Scotland. The Pír Panjál range is said to have been the home of a Pír or Saint, who gave benediction to travellers passing northwards over the mountains. The belief is still current among Muhammadans in Kashmír that the Pír resides on one of the summits, and the whole range is thus invested with peculiar sanctity. The general direction of the range is from north-west to south-east. The

highest part is of basaltic formation, consisting of upheaved amygdaloidal trap, transition rocks appearing on its borders. Quartz, slate, and other primary formations are observable on the northern side. The lowest parts of the table-lands of Rukshu are 15,000 feet above the level of the sea. The snow-line here recedes as high as 20,000 feet, attributed to the great radiation of heat from the high table-lands about. The plains of Deosái, which embrace a portion of Baltistán, are of immense extent, bordering the river Indus, and are shut in by snowy ranges penetrated by valleys of great depth.

The principal passes from the mountains into the Kashmír valley are the following :—

Situation.	Name.	Elevation in Feet.	From what Place.
North . . .	Rájdiangau	11,800	Gurais, Skardo.
South . . .	Marbal	11,570	Kistawár, Chamba.
,, . . .	Banihál	9,200	Jamu, Siálkot.
,, . . .	Pír Panjál	11,400	Bhimbar, Rájáori, Gujrát.
East	Margan	11,600	Maru, Wardwán, Súrú.
,, ...	Zoji-la	11,300	Dras, Ladákh.
West	Toshá Maidan	?	Púnch, Jehlam.
,, ...	Firozpur	12,560	...
,, ...	Báramúla	...	Murree, Abbottábád, Púnch.
,, ...	Nattishannar	10,200 ?	Karnas, Muzaffarábád, Abbottábád.

The *margs* or mountain downs, which are numerous on the tops of the range of hills immediately below the Pír Panjál, and also upon the northern slopes of those mountains which enclose the north-eastern side of the valley, are a peculiar feature of the country. They are covered with rich grass, and afford pasturage during the summer months to large herds of ponies, cattle, sheep, and goats. Sonamarg (or golden meadow) is a favourite refuge in the malarious months of July and August, both for Europeans and natives of high rank.

Rivers.—The principal river of Kashmír is the JEHLAM (Jhelum), which nearly intersects the valley. Formed by the junction of three streams—the Arpat, the Bring, and the Sandaram—which rise at the south-east end of the valley, it receives in its course numerous tributaries. Among those which join it on the right bank are the Liddar from the north-east, near Islámábád; the Sind from the east, opposite Shádipur; and the Pohrú, which flows into it near Sopúr. On its left bank it is joined by the combined waters of the Veshan and Rembiára near Murháma; by the Ramchúat Karkárpur and the Dudh Gangá at Srínagar.

The Kishen Gangá, or river of Krishna, which has its sources on the edges of the Deosái plain and in the Tiláil valley, is also a con-

siderable stream. It flows in a north-north-westerly direction till near Shardi, when it turns to the south-west and joins the Jehlam just below the town of Muzaffarábád. The Maru Wardwán river, which drains the Wardwán valley, flows southward, joining the Chenáb above Kistawár. The latter river traverses Kistawár and Badrawár, flowing into the plains some miles to the west of Jamu. Of these rivers, the Jehlam alone is navigable, from the neighbourhood of Islámábád to Báramúla, a distance of about 60 miles.

The Jehlam is spanned by 13 bridges in its course through the valley of Kashmír. These bridges, which are of peculiar construction, are called *kadals*. They are all made of *deodar* wood, and are constructed in the following manner:—A space either triangular with the apex up stream, or more commonly hexagonal, having a triangular apex at each end, facing up as well as down stream, is formed in the bed of the river by strong stakes, which are well driven down and covered with planks on the outside to a height of about 8 feet. This space is then filled with heavy stones, to form the foundation of a pier. Each pier consists of alternate layers of *deodar* trunks, which are placed about a foot apart, every succeeding layer being broader than the previous one, and laid at right angles to it. The trunks are fastened together at their ends by strong wooden pegs. The piers are united by long and very stout *deodar* trunks, which stretch across from one to the other, and are laid about 2 feet apart. The platform consists of rough planks or slender poles, which are closely laid across the trunks that connect the piers, and are fastened at each end by wooden pegs. In some cases there is a coating of grass and earth over the platform, and a railing on each side.

Smaller bridges of a single span are usually constructed in the following manner:—On either side of the stream, abutments of rubble masonry, laced with cross-beams of timber, are built up, and into these are inserted stout beams, one over the other in successively projecting tiers, the interstices between the latter being filled up with cross-beams. The projecting poles increase in size as they approach the upper platform, and have a slight incline upwards, their shore ends being firmly braced into the stone-work. Between the uppermost row of timbers, two or three long and very strong connecting trees are placed, and scantlings laid over them for the pathway; sometimes a railing is added for greater security. Such bridges are frequently of considerable span, and, if well built, last from thirty to forty years.

Next in importance come the rope suspension bridges, which are often of great length; of these there are two descriptions, called respectively *chika* and *jhola*. The *chika* bridge consists simply of six or eight stout ropes close together, stretched between rude piers

on either bank of the torrent. On them a ring of timber, formed of a section of a tree about 2 feet long and 1 foot in diameter, slides, being hauled backwards and forwards by a rope attached to it, and connected with the suspension ropes at intervals of about 20 feet by stout cane rings. To the slide a loop of ropes is secured, through which the legs of the traveller are inserted, and he clasps his hands in front of him round the ropes to preserve a sitting position. It looks dangerous, but is in practice a perfectly safe, though tedious, operation. Baggage is carried across in the same manner, each package being lashed to the loop and hauled across separately; and in like manner sheep and goats, and sometimes cows, are conveyed across rivers and torrents.

A *jhola* bridge is formed of a stout rope of five or six distinct strands, stretched between piers and securely fastened on either side of the river. This forms the footway; and about 3 feet above it on either side is a guy-rope, which is grasped by the passenger to enable him to retain his footing on the bridge. The guy-ropes are kept in their places by being attached at intervals to the ends of forked branches like the merry-thought of a chicken. Some of these bridges swing a good deal with the weight of the traveller, and are trying to the nerves of those unaccustomed to them. The ropes of which they are constructed are made either of hemp, or willow, or birch twigs, and are renewed annually, or as often as occasion may require.

The Srínagar tract is intersected with a labyrinth of canals. To avoid the necessity of crossing the dangerous Wúlar Lake, through which flows the main stream of the Jehlam, a navigable canal was constructed in early times to connect Sopúr with Srínagar. Irrigation canals are very numerous; of these the Sháhkúl Canal in Khaurpárá District, and the Naindi and Ninnar Canals near Islámábád, are the most important.

The lakes of Kashmír are numerous, both in the valley itself, and upon the mountains surrounding it. In the valley the principal lakes are:—The Dal or 'city lake,' five miles long, which is situated north-east of Srínagar, and is connected with the Jehlam by a canal called the Tsont-i-kúl, or 'apple-tree canal,' which enters it opposite the palace. The Anchar is situated to the north of Srínagar; it is connected with the Dal by means of the Nálamar, which flows into the Sind river near Shádipur. The Mánasbal, said to be the most beautiful lake in Kashmír, is situated near the right bank of the Jehlam, and is 1½ miles long, ¾ of a mile wide, and very deep. The Wúlar is the largest of all the Kashmír lakes. Its extreme breadth from north to south is 1½ miles, exclusive of the marshes on the south side; extreme length, 10 miles; circumference, nearly 30 miles; average depth, 12 feet; deepest part, about 16 feet. The Jehlam flows into the Wúlar on its east side near the middle of the lake, leaving it at its south-west corner in a fine

open stream about 200 yards wide. Like every other lake surrounded by mountains, the Wúlar is liable to the action of sudden and furious hurricanes that sweep over its surface. The chief mountain lakes are—the Konsa Nág, situated on the top of the Pír Panjál range; the Shísha Nág, situated above the head of the Liddar valley; the Gangábál Nág and Sarbal Nág, situated on the top of Haramúk, which overlooks the north-eastern shore of the Wúlar.

Minerals.—Iron abounds, but Vigne states that the ore of Kashmír is not considered good; and Moorcroft remarks that, though iron is found in considerable quantities, the metal used in the fabrication of gun-barrels requires to be imported from the Punjab. Near the village of Harpatnar, at the northern extremity of the Kutihár District, a copper mine is said to have been worked within late years. Plumbago abounds in the Pír Panjál mountains, and it has lately been found of inferior quality on the east side of the Maru Wardwán valley. Sulphur springs are common, but the mineral has nowhere been found in a solid state. Sulphide of lead (*surma*) is found in the Jamu hills, and samples of coal from the same locality have been exhibited in the Lahore Exhibition. The rocks in the immediate vicinity of Daudela are thin carbonaceous shales and grits with earthy ferruginous limestones; among them is a seam of coal or anthracite, varying in thickness from 1 inch to nearly 2 feet, undulating in chambers or bunches more than in a continuous seam. The general character of the coal is that of a hard anthracite. During the progress of the Kashmír Survey, Captain Montgomerie, R.E., found gold dust in the bed of the Shigar or Shingo river, a tributary of the Dras, but the quantity to be obtained was very small. Gold-washing is also carried on to a very trifling extent on the banks of the Jehlam, in the neighbourhood of Tangrot.

Sulphurous springs burst forth in many parts of the valley of Kashmír, and earthquakes are of not uncommon occurrence. In June 1828, the city of Srínagar was shaken by an earthquake which destroyed about 1200 houses and 1000 persons. For more than two months afterwards, lesser shocks were daily experienced. Abu Fazl, in describing the country about two centuries previously, mentions the frequent occurrence of earthquakes at that period. Some years ago at Sogam, near the north-western extremity of the valley, the ground became so hot that sand is said to have been fused.

The most terrible visitation on record of earthquake in Kashmír occurred in June and July of the present year (1885). An enormous quantity of private and Government property was destroyed, and many thousand lives were lost. Throughout large tracts almost the whole population was rendered homeless, and for a time depended upon State relief for subsistence.

Wild Animals. — Bears are found in all parts of Kashmír State, and, although far less numerous than formerly, are still very common. Though formidable animals, they do not usually molest man unless previously attacked. Of the brown or red species, which is between six and seven feet long, there are two varieties, viz. the *Ursus isabellinus*, inhabiting the lower ranges, and the *Ursus arctus*, found higher up the mountains. The black bear (*Ursus tibetanus*), though smaller than the brown, is far more dangerous, and is usually found lower down. Both species are chiefly herbivorous, but also partly carnivorous. Leopards are found all round the Kashmír valley, but they infest the grazing grounds, where they sometimes commit great havoc amongst the cattle. The ounce, or snow leopard, has been seen in Tiláil. The *barásingha*, or large stag, is found throughout the Pansál range generally, except where it slopes towards the plains. It is not, however, usually met with until the middle of September, though occasionally seen in the middle of August with fully developed horns. Both Hindus and Muhammadans eat the flesh of the stag. The *gural*, or Himálayan chamois, is found on the Pansál range, and in Kistawár. The ibex is found in the northern parts of Kashmír. It is stated to be larger than the European ibex; the horns, too, are longer, more curved, and more tapering. The *khákar*, or barking deer, is usually found only upon the southern and western slopes of the Pansál range. The *márkhor*, or serpent-eater, is a species of gigantic goat; it is migratory, and is found all over the Pír Panjál beyond the Báramúla Pass, and upon the mountains between the Jehlam and Kishen Gangá rivers. The musk deer is found in birch woods in all parts of Kashmír at a certain elevation. The *sarrau* or *buz-i-kohi* (mountain goat) and the *thar* (another species of mountain goat) are found upon the Pansál range.

Wolves are numerous on the mountains of Kashmír, and often do great injury to the flocks of sheep. They are not often seen in the valley. Monkeys are common in the lower portion of the Kishen Gangá valley. Foxes and jackals are numerous; the former is not the little grey species of Hindustán, but large and full brushed, like an English fox. A species of marmot, called *drúm* or *pua*, is found amid the rocks at high elevation; it is as large as a fox, of a dull yellowish colour, with tawny belly, the head, back, and tail being marked with a darker stripe, distinguishable at a considerable distance. It is stated that this animal is frequently a prey to the eagle; it emits a shrill cry on the approach of danger. The otter is frequently met with in the rivers, and its skin is highly prized The porcupine is found in Kistawár. There are few reptiles in Kashmír; venomous serpents are rare, though the cobra has been seen.

Birds of prey are numerous, and there are several varieties of eagles and vultures, and also of falcons and hawks. Many kinds of game birds are found. The black *chikor*, grey and snow species of partridge, are met with in many parts. Of pheasants, the varieties found are the argus, *múnál*, *kallíj*, *koklas*, and the snow. The common kind of quail, the jack-snipe, and the woodcock are met with. Waterfowl of every species abound during the winter months. They come from Yárkand and Central Asia, in order to avoid the cold of the more northern regions, and depart as soon as spring commences. Bald-coots, moorhens, dab-chicks, and grebes are constantly to be found in the autumn and winter. Herons are common. The *sáras*, or gigantic crane, is often seen in the marshes, and also a small kind of pelican. The *bulbul*, or nightingale of Kashmír, is a distinct species, greatly inferior in note to the genuine nightingale of Europe. The cuckoo, the *máina*, and the hoopoe are common. The parrot is not indigenous to the valley, but the golden oriole is frequently met with. Flies, sandflies, and mosquitoes are numerous and troublesome, especially in August and September.

Population.—The population of the dominions of the Mahárájá of Kashmír and Jamu was estimated in 1875 at about 1,600,000 persons. This estimate is doubtless founded on the Census made in 1873, the details of which are given in Appendix VII. of Drew's *Kashmír*. No Census of Kashmír State was carried out in 1881. The total population in 1873 was given at 1,534,972, excluding ladies of rank (*parda nashín*), who live in close retirement. The total population of the Jamu District is put at 861,075; of Kashmír Proper, at 491,846; of Ladákh, Iskardoh, and Gilghit, at 104,485; of Púnch, at 77,566. Of the total, the number of Hindus was 506,699; of Muhammadans, 918,536; of sundry castes, 89,483; and of Buddhists, 20,254. The great majority of the Muhammadans belong to the Sunní sect. The respectable Hindu castes are the Bráhmans and the Kárkúns; the latter form the most numerous class, and are employed as writers, merchants, and farmers, but never as soldiers.

An estrangement exists between Kashmíri Pandits who have been domiciled in British India, and their brethren in Kashmír. It is not long since that a service similar to that for the dead was performed over such Kashmíri Pandits as were about to emigrate, as their relatives looked upon them as dead thenceforward. The way was so long and difficult, and the means of correspondence so uncertain, that they never expected to receive tidings of the absentees, much less to welcome them back into the home circle. In time, the wanderers fell away from the customs of their house, and embraced those of the people amongst whom they had settled. Thus it has come to pass, that whilst Kashmíri Pandits domiciled in India have accepted

the severe ritual of the Indian Bráhmans in matters of food and drink; their brethren in Kashmír, whom they characterize as intolerant and ignorant, do not object to meat, will take water from a Muhammadan, eat with their clothes on, and have no repugnance to cooking and taking their meals on board a boat.

The inhabitants of Kashmír are physically a fine race. The men are tall, strong, and well built; their complexion is usually olive, but sometimes fair and ruddy, especially among Hindus; their features are regular and well developed, and those of the Muhammadans have a decided Jewish cast, resembling the Patháns. Captain Bates gives the following analysis of the inhabitants in an ordinary Kashmírí village. The village selected is Bijbihara, in which are 400 houses. Of the 400 houses, Muhammadan landowners occupied 80; Muhammadan shopkeepers, 65; Hindu shopkeepers, 15; Bráhmans, 8; *pandits*, 20; goldsmiths, 10; bakers, 5; washermen, 5; weavers, 9; blacksmiths, 5; carpenters, 4; surgeons, 2; *hakíms* or physicians, 3; leather-workers, 5; milk-sellers, 7; fishermen, 10; carpet and blanket makers, 5; *mullás* or Muhammadan priests, 12; *pír zadás* or saintly devotees, 40; *fakírs*, 20. To these 400 houses there were 10 mosques, 8 smaller shrines, and numerous Hindu temples. The houses throughout the Kashmír valley are nearly all built after the same pattern. First there is a ground floor, in which are two chambers with the small hall of the house. The second floor contains three rooms; and the floor under the roof usually consists of one long chamber, which is used as a loft for storing firewood, kitchen stuff, and lumber. In this last the household spend the summer months.

Polygamy does not appear to be very common among the Hindus in Kashmír; and with the Muhammadans the practice is confined to the wealthier classes, who are generally found in the towns. Few of the agricultural population have the means to indulge in a plurality of wives. Kashmírís, rich and poor, are passionately fond of tea, of which two kinds find their way into the market, called *surati* and *sabzi*. The *surati* is like English tea, and reaches Kashmír from the Punjab; the *sabzi* is the famous brick-tea, which finds its way into the country through Ladákh. The Russian tea-urn, or 'samovar,' is a common article of household furniture in Kashmír; the shape is said to have been imitated from a Russian model brought by some travelling merchant years ago from the north.

The chief towns of Kashmír are JAMU (Jummoo), the capital, on the river Távi, an affluent of the Chenáb, in the extreme south of the territory; SRINAGAR, the Mahárájá's summer residence, and the seat of the shawl and silk manufacture, situated on the Jehlam to the west of Kashmír; ISLAMABAD, the terminus of the navigation of the Upper Jehlam; and LEH, the entrepôt of the trade between Yárkand and

India, situated near the right bank of the Indus, towards the north-east of the Mahárájá's dominions.

The languages of Kashmír are divided into thirteen separate dialects. Of these, Dogri and Chibháli, which do not differ much from Hindustání and Punjabí, are spoken on the hills and country of the Púnch and Jamu Districts. Kashmírí is mostly used in Kashmír Proper, and is rather curiously and closely related to the Sanskrit. It is not, however, the Court language, and for the purpose of a traveller through Kashmír, either Hindustání or Punjabí will serve. Five dialects are included under the term 'Pahárí,' a language spoken by the mountaineers in the east of Kashmír. Besides these, there are two dialects of Tibetan, which are spoken in Baltistán, Ladákh, and Champas; and in the north-west three or four varieties of the Dard dialects of Aryan origin.

The flora of Kashmír bears a strong affinity to that of Europe. Of trees, the *deodar* or Himálayan cedar (Cedrus deodara) merits first notice. Its range extends from 7000 to 12,000 feet above the sea; in its most congenial locality it reaches a height of from 100 to 200 feet, and has a girth ranging from 20 to 40 feet. The *deodar* forests are very extensive, and of great value. The forests of Kashmír contain, among other trees, the *yar* (Pinus excelsa), the most widespread species of pine. There are also two other species of pine, including the *chíl* (Pinus longifolia), and one of fir. The common yew (Taxus baccata) abounds. The elm is frequently met with, and there is said to be a forest of sandal-wood in the Kutihár District. The cypress is common in gardens; and a species of plane-tree (Platanus orientalis), considered an exotic, is probably nowhere found more abundant or luxuriant than in Kashmír. Poplars, lime-trees, and a species of wild chestnut-tree attain great size and luxuriance. Two kinds of willow grow in the valley, and the maple and red and white hawthorn (Cratægus oxyacantha) are common. The birch and the alder are found at great heights. Junipers and rhododendrons grow on the mountains at a height of 11,000 feet, and roses, both wild and cultivated, bloom in vast profusion. Flowers are very numerous. The crocus is cultivated for the production of saffron, which is used as a condiment and as a medicine. About 1600 lbs. of saffron are said to be yearly exported to Ladákh.

The fruit-trees of Kashmír are the apple, pear, quince, peach, apricot, plum, almond, pomegranate, mulberry, walnut, hazel-nut, and melon. The strawberry, raspberry, and currant grow wild. There are said to be at least six varieties of grape. Of late years the Mahárájá has been devoting attention to the improvement of vine cultivation and the manufacture of wine and spirits, with encouraging results. The extent of land now under vines is considerable, and some of the

wine and brandy produced has been reported on favourably by European visitors to Kashmír. Neither orange, lemon, nor any other species of Citrus arrives at maturity in Kashmír, as the intense cold of winter proves fatal to them. There is great variety and abundance of excellent vegetables. Hügel enumerates fifteen different sorts not known in Europe. The potato, cauliflower, carrot, rhubarb, and, in short, garden vegetables generally, may be grown of the finest description, and in any quantity.

The floating gardens of Kashmír are so peculiar as to deserve some notice. They are common on the city lake, where they yield abundant crops of fine cucumbers and melons. To form these islands, choice is made of a shallow part of the lake overgrown with reeds and other aquatic plants, which are cut off about 2 feet below the surface, and then pressed close to each other without otherwise disturbing the position in which they grow. They are subsequently mowed down nearly to the bed, and the parts thus taken off are spread evenly over the floats, and covered with a thin layer of mud drawn up from the bottom. On the level thus formed are arranged close to each other conical heaps of weeds, about 2 feet across and 2 feet high, having each at top a small hollow filled with fresh mud. In each hollow are set three plants of cucumber or melon, and no further care is required but to gather the produce, which is invariably fine and abundant. Each bed is kept in its place by a willow stake driven into the bottom of the lake. A most valuable product of uncultivated vegetation is the *singhára* (Trapa bispinosa), or horned water-nut. It grows in the Wúlar Lake in such profusion, that 60,000 tons are, it is said, raised every year, constituting almost the sole food of at least 30,000 persons for five months in the year. It ripens in the month of October. The nut is dried, and then formed into a flour or meal, of which cakes are made.

Agriculture.—In Kashmír, as in Upper India, two harvests are reaped annually. The first, or *rabí*, ripens about July; the second, or *kharíf*, about two and a half months later. The chief *rabí* crops are wheat, barley, peas, etc.; those of the *kharíf* are rice, Indian corn, gram, and flax. Of the total rainfall of Kashmír, which does not exceed an average of 18 inches annually, only 6 inches fall during the agricultural season in the valley. Of much greater importance than the rainfall is the snow, which falls on the mountains from November to March, and on the melting of which in the spring and summer the rice crop mainly depends for its irrigation. Heavy rains usually fall in March and April, failing which the spring crops of barley and wheat are poor. Steady showers in July are required for the rice and Indian corn crops, and further showers in September and October. The spring crop ripens in June or July, after which is an intermediate crop of Indian corn and

other less important grains, which ripens in August and September; and finally, the rice harvest is gathered from the beginning of November. Rice forms the staple food of the people, and is the most important crop, occupying three-fourths of the cultivated area.

Famine.—Kashmír suffered severely from famine in the two years 1878–80. The wheat and barley crops in 1878 were exceedingly poor; the fruit crop was to a great extent destroyed owing to an unusually wet and cold winter; and the early autumn grains of maize and millet were partly destroyed by intense heat and blight, and partly devoured by the starving peasantry, so that scarcely any reached the State granaries. Notwithstanding a fair spring crop in 1879, famine continued to rage throughout the summer, and was not checked till the ripening of a good rice crop in the autumn. Famine was not entirely at an end till June 1880. It was caused mainly by excessive and unseasonable rainfall; and was aggravated by a heavy assessment, inadequate arrangements for collecting the land revenue, the State monopoly of grain, and the badness of the roads and communications. The mortality was very heavy, especially among the Muhammadan population; and the distress was intensified by an outbreak of cholera in 1879.

Manufactures.—The chief manufacture of Kashmír consists of shawls, which are celebrated throughout the world. These are of two kinds—those loom-made, and those woven by hand. The wool of which the shawls are manufactured is from the goats pastured upon the elevated regions of Changthan, Turfan, etc. It is also obtained from the yak and the shepherd's dog. The shawl-weavers are Muhammadans, and are the most miserable portion of the population, both physically and morally. Crowded together in small and badly ventilated workshops, earning a mere pittance (about 1½d. a day), and insufficiently nourished, they suffer from chest affections, rheumatism, and scrofula. Of the Kashmír shawls imported into Europe, France used to monopolize about 80 per cent. On the breaking out of the war between France and Germany in 1870, the shawl trade suffered a sudden collapse, which has continued till the present day, owing, it is said, to a change of fashion in Europe. There are said to be still exported shawls to the value of £130,000 annually, £90,000 worth of which goes to Europe. A really fine shawl may bring as much as £300, but this is an exceptional price.

Attempts are now being made to divert labour into other channels, such as the manufacture of carpets, to which trade the peculiar dexterity of the Kashmír weavers is well adapted. Great attention is also paid to the cultivation of the vine for wine-making; and in parts of the Mahárájá's territory, to tea. The manufacture of woollen cloths is almost universal throughout the valley, and gives employment to the villagers throughout the long winter months. The better quality of wool is used in the manufacture of blankets, and the fine woollen cloth

called *pashminá;* of the inferior wool, coarse woollens called *pattú* are made. Silk has of late years received considerable attention, and bids fair to become one of the most important products of the Mahárájá's dominions. There is a factory at Srínagar; and in 1871, £30,000 was set apart by the Mahárájá to foster the young industry. In 1872, 57,600 lbs. of silk is said to have been produced, the value of which was about £12,000.

The paper produced in Kashmír has a great reputation throughout Hindustán. A description of papier-maché or lacquered work is peculiar to Kashmír. The designs are by no means always on papier-maché, being frequently done on articles of smooth wood. They consist of a delicate pattern in colours, chiefly crimson, green, and blue, drawn with a fine brush; flowers and the curved forms seen upon shawls are most commonly produced. The lapidaries of Kashmír are stated to have produced specimens of their skill and taste superior to any in Europe. The silver and gold work, of which a great deal is made in Srínagar, is exceedingly effective; and the smiths, with the rudest tools, consisting of a hammer and a few tiny chisels and punches, contrive to copy with admirable fidelity numerous designs both Oriental and European. Kashmír was long famous for the manufacture of gun and pistol barrels and sword-blades, but this trade has greatly declined of late years.

Commerce and Trade.—The principal commercial intercourse is with the Punjab, Ladákh, and Afghánistán. The main routes by which the merchandise of Kashmír enters India are from Srínagar, by the Banihál Pass to Jamu and Amritsar, by the Pír Panjál and Bhimbar to Gújrát, also by Akhnúr and the Búdil Pass; and lastly, from Srínagar to Pesháwar, by Báramúla, Muzaffarábád, and Manserat. The great mart in the Punjab for the trade of Kashmír is Amritsar. Goods to a considerable amount pass through Kashmír from British India for the markets of Central Asia. Several main lines of road lead from the Punjab into Kashmír, and the construction of a railway between Siálkot and Jamu has been talked of. Telegraphic communication is kept up between Siálkot, Jamu, and Srínagar.

In 1871, an annual fair was established at Jamu, which commences on the 20th November; prizes are awarded by the Mahárájá, and during the continuance of the fair the custom duties are reduced to half the ordinary rates. The value of the trade with British territory in 1874 was estimated at £890,000; and in 1883-84 at £901,604, namely, imports into the Punjab, £529,013, and exports, £372,591. In addition, there is a trade between British India and Yárkand, passing through Kashmír, valued at £60,000 a year. The total trade of Leh, which is the centre of this through traffic, increased in value from about £5000 in 1864 to about £80,000 in 1876. In 1883-84, this trade,

which has been falling off of late years, was valued at £52,781, both exports and imports.

In 1870, a treaty was concluded with the Mahárájá, by which he agreed to abolish all transit duties on goods passing between the countries of Eastern Túrkistán and British India; while the British Government agreed to abolish the export dues on shawls and other textile fabrics, and to levy no duty on goods transmitted in bond through British India to Central Asia, or to the territories of the Mahárájá. The Mahárájá also undertook to facilitate the survey of the trade routes between his territory and Yárkand, and consented to the appointment of Joint Commissioners (one to be nominated by the British Government) for the settlement of disputes between carriers, traders, or others using that road, in which either of the parties, or both of them, should be subjects of the British Government or of any foreign State. An officer of the British Government is stationed at Leh, and another at Srínagar.

Coinage.—The silver coins in circulation in Kashmír are of three classes. First, the old *Harisinghi* rupees, worth eight annas, introduced during the Sikh rule by Sardár Hari Singh. They are few in number, but are for the most part of good metal and full weight. Second, the old *Chilki* rupees, issued by the late Mahárájá Ghuláb Singh, and valued originally at ten annas. In consequence of irregularities in the Kashmír mint, these old *chilki* rupees were greatly debased; and some years ago the State found itself forced to lower the value generally to eight annas. The quantity of alloy, however, varies to the extent of many annas; and the device on the coin being a rude one, and easily imitated, the Kashmír silversmiths have freely issued their own coins along with Government money, and mixed with them as much copper alloy as they chose. These old *chilki* rupees are spread all over the country, and form the general circulating medium for petty trade. Third, the new *Chilki* rupees, issued by the present Mahárájá about fifteen or sixteen years ago. These are of full weight, of good metal, and of the value of ten annas, say about one shilling if converted into sterling.

Climate.—The climate of Kashmír varies according to the situation. Upon the summits of the surrounding mountains it is extremely rigorous, while in the valley it is temperate, being intermediate between that of Europe and the plains of India. The seasons in the valley are all well marked, and occur about the same time as in England. In the higher portions of the valley, the climate from the beginning of May to the end of October is mild and very salubrious, and almost as invigorating to the European constitution as that of England. In consequence of the great elevation of Kashmír, the cold of winter is considerable, being on an average much more severe than in any part

of the British Isles, and this in a latitude lower than that of Sicily. The hottest months in the valley are July and August; the air is occasionally close and oppressive, especially for a day or two before rain, which is often accompanied with thunder and lightning. The coldest months are December and January, when the average morning temperature in the valley is a little below freezing point; ice invariably covers the surface of the lakes to a considerable distance from the banks, and about once in seven or eight years the Jehlam itself is frozen over at Srínagar. Schlagintweit gives the following as the monthly mean temperature at Srínagar in 1856:—January 40° F., February 45°, March 50°, April 56°, May 60°, June 70°, July 73°, August 71°, September 63°, October 57°, November 54°, December 42° F.

There are no periodical rains as in Hindustán; and although the annual fall upon the mountains must be very great, yet in the valley the quantity probably does not exceed 18 or 20 inches during the year. About the end of March and beginning of April, there are frequent and sudden storms in the valley, accompanied by hail and rain; spring showers are frequent during April and May. In June and September also, heavy rain is not infrequent, and there are occasional showers in July and August. The air of Kashmír is in general remarkable for its stillness. Night frosts set in as early as the middle of November. By the end of that month the trees are stripped of their leaves and the year's vegetation is killed off, a thick haze overspreads the whole valley, and the lakes and rivers send up clouds of vapour. Every movement of men or beasts raises great quantities of dust, and the haze becomes so great that even at mid-day, and under a cloudless sky, no object can be seen at a mile's distance. This murky state of the air extends for about 200 feet above the level of the valley; and those who climb beyond that height see the snowy mountains of a dazzling whiteness, and the sun shining clearly in a cloudless sky, while the low country lies hidden in dim obscurity. The first fall of snow restores the clearness of the air. This fall upon the mountains usually occurs about the beginning of November, but it is slight, and soon melted by the sun. The heavy fall begins about the middle of December, and the snow lies to the average depth of 2 feet until the middle of April.

Medical Aspects. — Malaria is very prevalent throughout the valley, and fevers and affections of the bowels are common, but the other diseases peculiar to India are seldom observed. Epidemics of small-pox and cholera are not infrequent. In many villages the inhabitants suffer from goitre. In addition to the above diseases, phthisis, elephantiasis, syphilis, and scrofula are common.

Administration—Law and Justice.—The Mahárájá of Kashmír forms

himself the ultimate Court of Appeal throughout his dominions, his decisions alone being final. The rule obtains that every suit must be instituted in the Court of First Instance, *i.e.* in the lowest competent to try the issue, though for the ends of justice it is not very strictly observed. In cases involving the Hindu and Muhammadan laws, the authorities are the *shástra* and the *shara* respectively; but the majority of the text-books of the five schools of Hindu law have no force in Kashmír. After mature deliberation, the Mahárájá has caused a criminal code to be prepared, consisting of 203 sections, with punishments for each offence, differing in spirit very little from the Indian Penal Code. Political offenders and criminals under life sentences are banished to the frontier fort of Bhúnji, but the bulk of ordinary prisoners are lodged in the jail near the village of Habbak, on the margin of the Dal Lake. Education has lately been encouraged by an annual grant of £3000, to defray the cost of publishing translations of books teaching the European sciences, and also standard works in Sanskrit and Arabic. Dispensaries for the European and Yunáni system of medicine have likewise been established.

Revenue.—The revenue of Kashmír State was estimated in 1876 at Rs. 8,075,782, or £807,578. The whole of the land in the State is considered to have been, time out of mind, the property of the ruler. During the rule of the earlier Hindu Rájás, *i.e.* till about the beginning of the 14th century A.D., one-sixth of the produce was paid to the State. The Musalmán Sultáns, who succeeded, continued at first to collect at the same rate. But they, and afterwards the Mughal Emperors of Delhi, began gradually to make enhancements, which reached their climax under the regime of the Duránís, by whose time half the produce in the case of rice, the staple of the Province, had come to be regarded as the rightful share of the ruler; and even to this, additions were generally made. The first Sikh Governor continued to levy the land revenue at the previously existing heavy rates. Some of the extra cesses were, however, reduced by his successor, General Mián Singh, about 1833.

Great frauds having been discovered in the superintendence of the crops while growing, a rough assessment was made in the following way. The grain, as it was cut, was tied up into little sheaves which a man could grasp with his two hands, the fingers meeting. It was the business of the village *shakdár*, or watcher of the crops, to see that all the grain cut was so stored; and the village *patwári*, or accountant, then had to number the sheaves in the different heaps. This being done, respectable men, specially chosen for the purpose by the *kárdár* or governor, came round and took out of the heaps certain average sheaves, which were threshed out in their presence, the produce weighed, and the total out-turn of grain in the village thus estimated. By means of the data so acquired, the total amount of grain due to the State from the

circle of villages under each *kárdár* was estimated, and for that amount the *kárdár* was held responsible. This was the system uniformly adopted in the case of the rice crop; with other crops the process varied slightly. If there was a general outcry against a particular *kárdár*, or if a neighbouring *kárdár* offered to pay more for that particular circle of villages, he was turned out, and the one that offered more put in his place.

This system continued in force till the year 1860, when the valley of Kashmír was divided into *chaklás*, each containing several *kárdár*-ships, and the collection of revenue in each *chaklá* was farmed to the *chakládár*. In fixing the amounts of grain and money to be paid by the farmer, the average amount collected during the previous five years was taken as the basis, and some remissions were made in the case of heavily taxed villages. The amount was fixed for three years, the farmer being left to share with the *zamíndár* the profits from extension of cultivation. In 1864–65, the crops failed extensively, and in consequence the farming system broke down; and next year the former system of division was resorted to. In 1867, the farming system was tried again, and leases fixed for a period of five years; but latterly it has been again abandoned, and the plan of taking the State share in kind is at present in practice. There is, however, no settled system throughout the country. A severe famine caused much suffering in 1878–80.

A great many works have appeared on the subject of Kashmír. The earlier writers are the travellers Bernier, Jacquemont, Moorcroft, Hügel, and others; among later writers may be mentioned as of some authority the works of Dr. W. T. Elmslie, Captain Bates, Dr. T. Ince, and Mr. Drew.

Kashmor.—*Táluk* or Sub-division of the Upper Sind Frontier District, Sind, Bombay Presidency; situated between lat. 28° 6′ 45″ and 28° 48′ N., and between long. 69° 8′ 30″ and 69° 52′ E. In 1872 the area was returned at 782 square miles; villages, 15; population, 25,232. In 1881, the area was 862 square miles; villages, 35; population, 43,832, namely, 25,035 males and 18,797 females, occupying 7557 houses. Hindus numbered 2770; Muhammadans, 39,980; Sikhs, 507; aboriginal tribes, 567; and Christians, 8. Revenue (1881–82), £21,102, of which £20,374 was derived from imperial and £728 from local sources. The *táluk* contains 1 civil and 2 criminal courts; police circles (*thánás*), 2; regular police, 45 men.

Kashmor.—Chief town of Kashmor *táluk*, Upper Sind Frontier District, Sind; situated 2 miles from the Indus river, and 86 miles north-north-east from Jacobábád. Lat. 28° 26′ N., long. 69° 36′ E. Population (1872) 956, consisting of 569 Musalmáns (mostly of the Kalwár tribe) and 387 Hindus (chiefly Lohános). Kashmor has been

destroyed by floods five times within eighty years, but is now protected by the Begári Bandh, or embankment. A canal, 4 miles long, connects Kashmor with the Indus. Under the name of the Desert Canal, the work is being extended 32 miles into the desert country west of the town, and is expected to have a completed length of 90 miles. The telegraph line passes through the place. Considerable trade in grain. Manufactures, principally coarse cotton cloth, shoes, leather work, and turned lacquered work. Station of a *mukhtiyárkár*, subordinate jail, Government English school, dispensary, post-office, military outpost, and police station.

Káshpur.—Village in the north of Cachar District, Assam, among the southern spurs of the Barel (Baráil) range. The residence of the Cachari Rájás during the greater part of the 18th century, when Hindu influence first became powerful at their court.

Kasia (*Kusinágara*, 'The City of the Holy Grass').—Village in Padrauna *tahsíl*, Gorakhpur District, North-Western Provinces; situated on the crossing of two unmetalled roads, 37 miles east of Gorakhpur town. The village contains a police station, post-office, dispensary, and is also the station of a Joint-Magistrate. It, however, derives its chief importance from its Buddhist associations and remains. Here Buddha died about 550 B.C.; and for over 1100 years Kusinágara was a place of great importance and sanctity, and a centre of Buddhist pilgrimage. It was visited by the Chinese pilgrims, Fa Hian in the 5th, and Hiuen Tsiang in the 7th century. The latter informs us that Buddha died in a *sál* forest more than half a mile from the city, at a short distance from the Hiranyavati or Ajitavati river (the modern Little Gandak). On the scene of his death were erected three large *stupas*, all standing in Hiuen Tsiang's time,—the largest, 200 feet in height, having been built by Asoka (250 B.C.). That monarch also erected here a pillar describing the *nirvána* of Buddha, and a large *vihára* or monastery, with a recumbent statue of Buddha. The existing Buddhistic remains lie south-west of the modern village of Kasia. They consist of a lofty mound of solid brickwork styled Devísthán or Rámabhar-Bhawáni, sacred to the wife of Siva; an oblong-shaped mound with a brick stupa; a colossal statue of Buddha seated under the sacred fig-tree at Gaya; and a number of low grassy barrows regarded by General Cunningham as tombs, although his excavations did not result in any discovery of human remains. These are all the existing remains of Kasia. Its many Buddhist shrines have either been effaced by the floods of the Little Gandak, or destroyed to supply materials for more modern buildings in neighbouring villages.

Kasiári.—Village in the Tamlúk Sub-division of Midnapur District, Bengal. Lat. 22° 7′ 25″ N., long. 87° 16′ 20″ E. Large trading village; also noted for its *tasar* silk cultivation and manufacture.

Kásíjorá.—Village in Midnapur District, Bengal. Lat. 22° 17′ 20″ N., long. 87° 22′ 45″ E. Inhabited by colonies of matmakers, who make the finer qualities of *maslandi* mats, which are largely exported to Calcutta as flooring mats for the houses of European residents.

Kásimbázár (*Cossimbázár*).—Decayed town in Murshidábád District, Bengal. Lat. 24° 7′ 40″ N., long. 88° 19′ E. This town, the site of which is now a swamp marked by a few ruins, may lay claim to a historical interest even superior to that of the city of Murshidábád. Long before the days of Murshid Kulí Khán, who founded and gave his name to the latter city, the trade of Bengal was centred at Kásimbázár. The different European nations who traded to India had factories here from very early times. The common name for the Bhágiráthí in English history down to the early years of the present century was the Kásimbázár river; and the triangular tract enclosed by the Bhágiráthí, Ganges, and Jalangí was known in the early days of the Company as the island of Kásimbázár. The place is said to derive its name from a legendary founder, Kásim Khán. Its history cannot be traced back beyond the 17th century; but even when first mentioned it appears as a place of great consequence. After Sátgáon had been ruined by the silting up of the Saraswatí mouth, and before Calcutta was founded, Kásimbázár was the great emporium.

An English commercial agent was first appointed to Kásimbázár in 1658; and nine years later it was decided that the 'Chief' at this place should be also a member of Council. In 1686, the factory at Kásimbázár, in common with the other English factories in Bengal, was confiscated by order of the Nawáb Shaistá Khán. It was restored a year or two later, and at the close of the century had become the leading English commercial agency in Bengal. In 1681, Job Charnock, the future founder of Calcutta, was Chief at Kásimbázár. In that year, of £230,000 sent out by the East India Company as the 'investment' to Bengal, £140,000 was assigned to Kásimbázár. In 1763, out of a total of £400,000 required as 'advances for investment,' Kásimbázár demanded £90,000, or as much as any other two agencies, excepting Calcutta. The filatures and machinery of the Company were estimated to be worth 20 *lákhs* of rupees, or £200,000. According to native tradition, the town was so studded with lofty buildings, that the streets never saw the rays of the sun.

The factory of the Company at Kásimbázár owed much of its wealth, and all its political importance, to its close neighbourhood to the Muhammadan capital at Murshidábád. But, from the same cause, it was liable to constant danger. It was a matter of common occurrence for the Nawáb to order out his troops to blockade the walled factory, whenever he had any quarrel with the English Council at Calcutta. In 1757, when the Nawáb Siráj-ud-daulá resolved

to drive the English out of Bengal, Kásimbázár felt the first effects of his anger. The fortified factory was taken without resistance, and the Englishmen, including Mr. Watts, the Resident, and Warren Hastings, his assistant, were sent in close custody to Murshidábád. After the battle of Plassey, Kásimbázár regained its commercial importance; but the political power formerly held by the Resident was transferred to the English Agent at the court of the Nawáb, who lived at Murshidábád.

The decay of Kásimbázár dates from the beginning of the present century, when its climate, which had previously been celebrated for salubrity, underwent an unexplained change for the worse, so that the margin of cultivation receded and wild beasts increased. In 1811, Kásimbázár town is described as noted for its silk, hosiery, *korás*, and inimitable ivory work, while the surrounding country was 'a wilderness inhabited only by beasts of prey.' In 1813, the ruin of the town was effected by a change in the course of the Bhágiráthí, which suddenly deserted its ancient bed, and instead of following its former bend to the east, took a sweep to the west, and now flows 3 miles from the site of the old town. The channel in front of the warehouses of Kásimbázár became a pestiferous marsh, a malarious fever broke out, and the place gradually became depopulated. The Company's filatures, however, continued to work, although the place had lost all its ancient importance, and weaving only ceased when it became impossible to compete with the cheaper cotton goods of Manchester. In 1829, a Census returned the population of Kásimbázár at 3538. It is still (1884) the seat of the wealthiest Hindu family of the District, represented by a noble and charitable lady, the Rání Swarnamayí, but otherwise it is quite deserted. Ruins of huge buildings and broad mounds of earth alone remain to attest its former grandeur. The chief traces of European occupation now remaining are mouldering tombstones.

Kásimkota.—Town in the Anakápalle *táluk* of Vizagapatam District, Madras Presidency; 23 miles west of Vizagapatam town. Lat. 17° 39′ 50″ N., long. 83° 0′ 10″ E. Population (1871) 6218; (1881) 7078, namely, 3562 males and 3516 females, of whom 6703 are Hindus, 374 Muhammadans, and 1 Christian. Number of houses, 1477. The principal town of a 'modern proprietary estate,' and formerly a *tahsíli* station; contains a good school. The estate is comprised of 8 villages, and was assessed at the permanent settlement at £1401. Kásimkota was, in Musalmán days, a *faujdárí* of the Chicacole Circar; and after the Northern Circars came into British hands, in 1768, it remained the head-quarters of a division. When, in 1802, the Chicacole Circar was transferred to Ganjám, Kásimkota remained attached to Vizagapatam. It was here that Colonel Forde's troops made their rendezvous with

those of Vizianágaram, previous to the battle of Condore and the taking of Masulipatam in 1758–59.

Kásipur.—Western *tahsíl* of the Tarái District, North-Western Provinces; consisting of a damp submontane tract, chiefly covered with forest jungle or grassy savannahs, but containing a larger proportion of cultivation than the remainder of the District. Area, 188 square miles, of which 89 are cultivated. Population (1872) 71,423; (1881) 74,973, namely, males 40,347, and females 34,626. Classified according to religion, the population in the latter year consisted of—Hindus, 49,263; Muhammadans, 25,670; Jains, 34; and 'others,' 6. Number of villages, 161, of which 122 had less than five hundred inhabitants. Land revenue, £9953; total Government revenue, £11,758; incidence of Government revenue per acre, 1s. 11d. The *tahsíl* contains 1 criminal court, and 2 police stations (*thánás*); strength of regular police, 30 men; village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 128.

Kásipur.—Town, municipality, and principal centre of population in the Tarái District, North-Western Provinces, and head-quarters of Kásipur *tahsíl;* situated in a marshy plain, overgrown with grass and jungle; distant from Moradábád 31 miles. Lat. 29° 13′ N., long. 78° 59′ 50″ E. Formerly the site of an ancient city, several large excavations in the neighbourhood being attributed to the Pándava tutor, Drona, one of the heroes of the *Mahábhárata.* These ruins have been identified by General Cunningham with the capital of the Govisana kingdom, visited in the 7th century A.D. by Hiuen Tsiang, the Chinese Buddhist pilgrim. At the close of the last century, Nandrám, governor of Kásipur, made himself independent; and his nephew, Síb Sál, was in possession of the *parganá* at the date of the British annexation in 1802. The present Rájá of Kásipur, Shiuráj Singh, holds rank as a special magistrate. It is a famous place of Hindu pilgrimage, having several temples and a holy tank, where pilgrims bathe on their way to Badrináth. Population in 1872, 13,113; in 1881, 14,667, namely, males 7555, and females 7112. Classified according to religion, there were, in the latter year—Hindus, 8477; and Muhammadans, 6190. Area of town site, 761 acres. Municipal income in 1881–82, £924, of which £744 was derived from taxation; incidence of taxation, 1s. 1d. per head. Well-built, handsome houses of the chief merchants. Brisk transit trade from Kumáun and Chinese Tartary to the plains. Exports of grain; manufacture of coarse cotton cloth. Government charitable dispensary.

Kásipur.—Village, and site of Government factory, a northern suburb of Calcutta.—*See* COSSIPUR.

Kasla Paginu Muwádu.—Petty State of the Koli group of Pándu Mehwas in Rewá Kántha, Bombay Presidency. Area, 1¼ square mile. There are 5 shareholders. Estimated revenue in 1881, £9; tribute of £6 is paid to the Gáekwár of Baroda.

Kasmandi Kalán.—Town in Lucknow District, Oudh; situated 4 miles east of Malihábád town, and 3 miles west of the Gúmtí river. Noted as having been the seat of the Hindu Rájá Kans, who was overthrown by Sayyid Sálár Masáúd, the leader of the first Muhammadan invasion into Oudh, 1030–31 A.D. Rájá Kans was slain in the battle, and there are numerous ruined tombs marking the burial-place of the chiefs who fell. A small mound of fallen bricks is pointed out as the *ran-khamba* or battle pillar. The present Musalmán proprietor of the place claims direct descent from the settlers left behind by Sayyid Sálár. Population (1869) 1990; (1881) 1809, namely, Hindus, 1061; and Muhammadans, 748. The birthplace and residence of several Muhammadans distinguished for learning and wealth. Government school, with a branch girls' school; post-office; small market.

Kassia.—Town of Gorakhpur District, North-Western Provinces.—*See* KASIA.

Kasta.—*Parganá* of Muhamdi *tahsíl*, Kheri District, Oudh. The north and west of the *parganá* comprises a considerable area of dense jungle, which is let out rent-free under 5 forest grants. This tract harbours herds of deer and other animals, which do much damage to the crops of the cultivators who have settled in the vicinity for the sake of grazing. The south of the *parganá* is highly cultivated by Kúrmís. Total area, 95 square miles (including 13 square miles of forest); cultivated area, 39 square miles. Government land revenue, £3871. Of the 73 villages comprising the *parganá*, 62 are held by *tálukdárs*, 4 by independent proprietors, 2 are Government villages, and 5 are held rent-free by forest grantees. Population (1869), Hindus, 29,556; Musalmáns, 1733; total, 31,289; (1881), Hindus, 29,076; and Muhammadans, 2598; total, 31,674. Average density, 329 persons per square mile.

Kastá village is a small place of about 200 houses, and a population of a little over 1000 persons, on the road from Lakhimpur to Mitauli; of no importance, and much decayed of late years.

Kasúr.—*Tahsíl* of Lahore District, Punjab, occupying the southern half of the eastern or Bári Doáb portion of the District, and lying along the banks of the Sutlej (Satlaj); situated between 30° 54′ 30″ and 31° 27′ N. lat., and between 74° 15′ and 75° 0′ 30″ E. long. Area, 794 square miles. Population (1868) 197,667; (1882) 229,798, namely, males 124,783, and females 105,015; average density, 289 persons per square mile. Classified according to religion, the population in 1881 consisted of—Muhammadans, 138,828; Hindus, 42,160; Sikhs, 48,136; and 'others,' 674. Of the total assessed area, in 1878–79, of 508,060 acres, 352,514 acres were returned as under cultivation, of which 42,462 acres were irrigated from Government works, and 89,200 acres by private individuals. The average annual area under the principal crops for the five years 1877–78 to 1881–82 is thus returned:—wheat,

169,495 acres; gram, 68,526 acres; *joár*, 31,832 acres; *moth*, 16,046 acres; Indian corn, 13,357 acres; barley, 20,149 acres; cotton, 7130 acres; and rice, 2052 acres. Revenue of the *tahsíl*, £22,684. The administrative staff consists of 1 Assistant or extra-Assistant Commissioner, 1 *tahsíldár*, and 1 *munsif*. These officers preside over 3 civil and 2 criminal courts. For police purposes, the *tahsíl* is divided in 5 police circles (*thánás*); strength of regular police, 137 men, besides 224 village watchmen (*chaukídárs*).

Kasúr.—Town and municipality in Lahore District, Punjab, and head-quarters of Kasúr *tahsíl;* situated upon the north bank of the old bed of the Beas (Biás), upon the Firozpur (Ferozepore) road, 34 miles south-east of Lahore city. Lat. 31° 6′ 46″ N., long. 74° 30′ 31″ E. Tradition refers its origin to Kush, son of Ráma, and brother of Loh or Lav, the founder of Lahore. Certainly, a Rájput city seems to have occupied the modern site before the earliest Muhammadan invasion; but Kasúr does not appear in history until late in the Musalmán period, when it was settled by a Pathán colony from the east of the Indus. These immigrants entered the town in the reign either of Bábar or of his grandson Akbar, and founded a considerable principality, with territory on either side of the Sutlej (Satlaj). When the Sikhs rose to power they experienced great opposition from the Patháns of Kasúr; and though the chiefs of the Bhangi Confederacy stormed the town in 1763, and again in 1770, and succeeded for a while in holding the entire principality, the Pathán leaders re-established their independence in 1794, and resisted many subsequent invasions. In 1807, however, Kutab-ud-dín Khán, their last chieftain, was forced to give way before Ranjít Singh, and retired to his property at Mamdot, beyond the Sutlej. The town of Kasúr was then incorporated with the Lahore monarchy. It consists of an aggregation of fortified hamlets, standing on the upland bank, and overlooking the alluvial valleys of the Beas and the Sutlej. The Afghán element has now declined.

Kasúr is now the most important town in the District after Lahore. It consists of twelve hamlets, four of which joined together form the main town, while the others are scattered a short distance around. Population (1868) 15,209. In 1881 it was 17,336, namely, males 8870, and females 8466. Classified according to religion, the population in 1881 consisted of—Muhammadans, 13,852; Hindus, 3074; Sikhs, 242; and Jains, 168. Number of houses, 3830. The municipal income of the town, which in 1875–76 amounted to £1218, had by 1882–83 increased to £2686; average incidence, 3s. 1½d. per head. The situation of the town affords considerable facilities for drainage. The main streets are paved and furnished with central and side drains, and a sufficient conservancy establishment is maintained. The town is the centre of a local trade in country produce. The only

manufacture is leather, especially harness, for which the place has a considerable reputation. An extra-Assistant Commissioner is stationed here in charge of the Sub-division. His court, the *tahsíli*, police station, school-house, dispensary, and *dák* bungalow are the public buildings. Kasúr is now connected with Lahore and Firoz pur by the Ráiwind-Firozpur branch of the Sind, Punjab, and Delhi Railway. The town contains a school of industry founded by a former Deputy Commissioner, and maintained out of local charities. It chiefly produces rugs and carpets, in imitation of those of Persian manufacture.

Katahra (or *Katera*).—Town in Jhánsi District, North-Western Provinces; situated 30 miles from Jhánsi town, and 15 from Mau (Mhow). Population (1881) 4463. Station of the Great Trigonometrical Survey. Local manufacture of pottery. Village school.

Katak ('*The Fort*').—District, Sub-division, and city, Orissa.—*See* CUTTACK.

Kátákhál ('*New Cut*').—Offshoot of the Dhaleswarí river, in the south of Cachar District, Assam; said to have been formed by one of the Cachárí Rájás, who constructed an embankment across the main channel of the Dhaleswarí, about 25 miles above its junction with the Barák. The Kátákhál now carries off the greater part of the stream, and is navigable by boats of 20 tons burthen all the year through.

Kátál.—A peculiar geological formation of country covered with thorn jungle, and extending over the east and north-east of Maldah District, Bengal. This tract extends north-east and south-east from the *diárá* or alluvial land, some six miles west of the Mahánadi river, to the borders of Dinájpur. It contains no large forests, but consists of a continuous waste of jungly high lands rising out of swamps. These high lands are covered with a thorny tree jungle called *kátál* (whence the tract takes its name). It is broken by narrow steep watercourses called *karis* or *nálás*, and is very thinly inhabited. The country shows traces of having been at one time occupied by a considerable population, which is reported to have been swept away by pestilence. Many tanks are to be seen, some of them of grand proportions, and scattered over a wide area. The ruins of the magnificent Muhammadan city of PANDUAH or Peruah, which succeeded a Hindu city of that name, are situated in the wildest and most dangerous portion of this jungle, known as the Peruah *kátál*. In former times there were probably many villages on these high lands; but at the present day there are merely a few miserable huts, inhabited by aboriginal or semi-aboriginal tribes, who mainly subsist by hunting or fishing, and raise a few crops by the rudest mode of tillage. Settlements have been recently formed by Santáls in various portions of this

tract, notably in the Peruah *kátál*, where extensive clearances are being made in these long impenetrable jungles.

Katalgarh.—Town in Kumáun District, North-Western Provinces; on the road from Pithoragarh to Champáwat, 4 miles north of the latter place. Lat. 29° 24′ N., long. 80° 5′ E. An old fort, garrisoned by Gúrkha troops during the war of 1814.

Katangi.—*Zamíndárí* or estate in Bilåspur District, Central Provinces; containing 41 villages, with an area of 57 square miles, of which about 11,000 acres are cultivated, and about 15,000 acres are cultivable waste. The tract consists of an open plain of average soil, bordered on one side by the Mahánadi river, and on the other by the Sonákhán hills. Population (1882) 15,845, namely, males 7751, and females 8094; average density, 278 persons per square mile. Number of houses, 4120. The chief is a Gond; and Katangi village, where he resides, contains a small but flourishing community of traders and weavers, and has a weekly market. Lat. 21° 46′ 30″ N., long. 79° 51′ E.

Katangi.—A State forest, chiefly of teak, in Betúl District, Central Provinces; covering about 170 square miles, and stretching from Katangá village on the Tápti to the river Ganjál.

Katangi.—A large but decaying village in Jabalpur (Jubbulpore) District, Central Provinces; situated at the foot of the Bhánrer Hills on the north bank of the Hiran, 22 miles north-west of Jabalpur city, on the road to Ságar (Saugor). Lat. 23° 26′ 30″ N., long. 79° 50′ E. Population (1881) 3505, namely, Hindus, 2582; Muhammadans, 757; Jains, 163; and aboriginal tribes, 3. The inhabitants are mostly agriculturists, and among them many Muhammadans, said to be descended from the soldiers of Akbar and Aurangzeb, both of whom encamped near the town. Katangi used to be famous for the manufacture of gun-barrels, which were largely exported. It contains a large tank and the remains of some mosques, and has a Government school.

Katás.—Holy fountain in the Pind Dádan Khán *tahsíl* of Jehlam (Jhelum) District, Punjab; and, after Kuru-kshetra and Jawála-mukhi, the most frequented place of pilgrimage in the Province. Lat. 32° 43′ 30″ N., long. 72° 59′ 30″ E. Siva being inconsolably grieved for the loss of his wife Sáti, the daughter of Daksha, 'rained tears from his eyes,' and so produced the two sacred pools of Pushkára, near Ajmere, and Katáksha or Katás, in the Sind Ságar Doáb. The pool is partly artificial, being formed by the enlargement of a natural basin in the bed of the Ganiya Nálá. Just above it, stretches a strong masonry wall which once dammed up the stream, so as to enclose a large lake; but the water now escapes through the interstices and broken masses of the embankment.

Katás lies on the north side of the Salt Range, 16 miles from

Pind Dádan Khán, and 18 from Chakwál; elevation above sea-level, over 2000 feet. Walls, towers, and brick ruins crown the surrounding heights, while a fort once stood upon the neighbouring hillock of Kotera. Below these remains, an enclosure contains the ruined *Sát Ghára* or seven temples, with another group, which General Cunningham ascertained to be twelve in number. The latter resemble in their general style the Kashmír order of architecture, characterized by dentils, trefoil arches, fluted pillars, and pointed roofs. Although the details cannot now be accurately discriminated, enough remains to prove with considerable certainty that the buildings belong to the Karkota and Varmma periods, from 625 to 939 A.D., during which epoch the Salt Range formed part of the Kashmír dominions. Popular tradition assigns the origin of the seven temples to the Pándava brethren, who are said to have lived at Katás during a portion of their twelve years' wanderings. The temples have suffered much from restoration and repairs, the whole wall of the central shrine being now hidden by a thick coat of plaster, the gift of Ghuláb Singh. General Cunningham inclines to believe that Katás may be identified with the capital of the Sinhapur kingdom, visited in the 7th century A.D. by Hiuen Tsiang, the Chinese Buddhist pilgrim. Some of the existing remains may possibly date back to the Buddhist period. Katás, as it exists at present, consists of a large square-shaped pool, set among rocks and apparently welling up from a spring in the dry bed. Round this pool a little Hindu colony of Bráhmans and *fakírs* has arisen, who quarrel over the offerings of the pilgrims. A large fair is held here at the beginning of the hot weather.

Katera.—Town in Jhánsi District, North-Western Provinces.—*See* KATAHRA.

Kathi.—Petty Mehwás State in the Taloda Sub-division of Khándesh District, Bombay Presidency; estimated area, about 300 square miles. The population in 1881 was returned at 10,223. Kathi is situated in the north-west corner of the Taloda Sub-division. It consists of a succession of narrow valleys separated by ridges of lofty, irregular, and forest-clad hills of the Sátpura range; difficult of access on all sides. Two routes are practicable for bullocks and horses, one from the south-west, from Kukarmunda village, across the Imli pass; and the other from the east, from Dhadgáon village of Akráni *parganá*. In the low-lying villages the soil is good, yielding rice and pulse. The forest products are timber, *mahuá* flower, honey, and wax. The chief has no patent allowing adoption, and in point of succession his family follows the rule of primogeniture. The present chief, a Hindu Bhíl, claiming Rájput origin, is a minor, and the State is under British management. Estimated revenue in 1882, £2230; tribute of £13 is paid to the British Government.

Káthiáwár (or *Suráshtrá*).—The peninsula or western portion of the Province of Gujarát (Guzerát), Bombay Presidency, situated between 20° 41′ and 23° 8′ N. lat., and between 68° 56′ and 72° 20′ E. long.

A square peninsula, standing boldly out into the Arabian Sea between the smaller projection of Cutch (Kachchh) and the straight line of the Gujarát coast. Its physical features suggest that it may once have been an island or a group of islands of volcanic origin. On the south and west Káthiáwár is bounded by the Arabian Sea; on the north by the Gulf and Runn of Cutch; on the east by the Sábarmati river and the Gulf of Cambay. It was known to the Greeks and Romans under the name of Σαυραστρήνη; the Muhammadans called it by the Prakritized name of Soráth, and to this day a large division in the south-west, 100 miles in length, still retains that name. Another tract, quite as large, to the east of the centre, however, has long been known as Káthiáwár, from having been overrun by the Káthis, who entered the peninsula from Cutch, in the 13th and 14th centuries; in the 15th, the whole tribe was driven out of Cutch, and in that and in the following century conquered a considerable territory. The Maráthás, who came into contact with them in their forays, and were sometimes successfully repelled by them, extended the name of Káthiáwár to the whole Province, and from them we have come to apply it in a similar wide sense; but by Bráhmans and the natives generally it is still spoken of as Suráshtrá.

The extreme length of the peninsula is about 220 miles, its greatest breadth about 165 miles, its area about 23,300 square miles, and its population (1881) about 2,500,000; estimated yearly revenue, £1,530,000. Of these totals, about 1320 square miles, 148,000 people, and £10,900 of revenue belong to the Gáekwár; about 1100 square miles, 160,000 people, and £26,600 of revenue belong to Ahmadabad District; about 7 square miles, 12,636 people, and £3800 of revenue belong to the Portuguese possession of Diu; while the remainder is the territory forming the Political Agency of KATHIAWAR, described in the following article.

Káthiáwár.—A Political Agency subordinate to the Government of Bombay, established in 1822, having under its control 187 separate States, great and small, whose chiefs have divided among themselves the greater portion of the peninsula of Káthiáwár. Of the 187 States, 13 pay no tribute, 105 are tributary to the British Government, 79 to the Gáekwár of Baroda, while 134 pay also a tribute to the Nawáb of Junágarh. Area, 20,559 square miles. Population (1881) 2,343,899.

Káthiáwár Agency is divided for administrative purposes into four *pránts* or divisions,—Jháláwár, Hálál, Soráth, and Gohelwár,—but the old territorial *pránts* are ten, namely, Jháláwár, in the north, containing about 50 States; Machhukánthá, west of Jháláwár; Hálál, in

the north-west, embracing 26 States; Okhámandal, in the extreme west, belonging to Baroda; Bárda or Jethwár, along the south-west coast; Soráth, in the south; Babriáwár, a hilly tract in the south-east; Káthiáwár, a large district near the middle; Undsarviya, situated along the Satrúnji river; and Gohelwár, in the east, along the shore of the Gulf of Cambay, so named from the Gohel Rájputs, who are the ruling race in it. In this last-named division is situated the Gogha or Gogo Sub-division of Ahmadábád District. Municipalities have been instituted in many of the chief towns of the Province, and municipal funds are yearly voted by the States for education, vaccination, roads, and other public purposes.

Physical Aspects.—Generally speaking, the surface of Káthiáwár is undulating, with low ranges of hills running in very irregular directions. With the exception of the Thángá and Mándav hills, in the west of Jháláwár, and some unimportant hills in Hálál, the northern portion of the country is flat; but in the south, from near Gogha, the Gír range runs nearly parallel with the coast, and at a distance of about 20 miles from it, along the north of Babriáwár and Soráth, to the neighbourhood of Gírnár. Opposite this latter mountain is the solitary Osam Hill, and still farther west is the Bárda group, between Hálál and Bárda, running about 20 miles north and south from Ghumli to Ránáwáo. The Gírnár clump of mountains is an important granitic mass, the highest peak of which rises to 3500 feet in height. The principal river is the Bhádar, which rises in the Mándav hills, and, flowing south-west, falls into the sea at Navi-Bandar, in Bárda, after a course of about 115 miles, everywhere marked by highly cultivated lands bordering its course. From the same hills rises another Bhádar, known as the Sukha Bhádar, flowing eastward into the Gulf of Cambay. Other rivers are the Aji, Machhu, Bhogáwa, and Satrúnji, the latter remarkable for wild and romantic scenery.

Four of the old races, the Jethwás, Churásamás, Solankís, and Wálás, still existing as proprietors of the soil, exercised sovereignty in the country prior to the immigration of the Jhálás, Járejás, Parmárs, Káthis, Gohels, Játs, Muhammadans, and Maráthás, between whom the country is now chiefly portioned out. As each of the important States in Káthiáwár is treated in a separate article, a brief notice must here suffice for the group as a whole.

There are important wooded tracts in Káthiáwár, besides the Gír with its 1500 square miles of forest, but insufficient attention is devoted to them by the chiefs. In Wánkáner and the Panchál, however, lands have been set aside for the growth of timber, and in Bhaunagar, Morvi, Gondal, and Mánávadár, *babúl* plantations have been formed. Palms, mangoes, and casuarinas have been specially planted and cared for in Bhaunagar; trunk and feeder roads are being gradually planted with

trees along their entire length; and several minor estates and villages are paying attention to forest conservancy.

History.—At a very early period, Suráshtrá was doubtless brought under the influence of Bráhmanical civilisation, and, from its position on the coast, it was most accessible to influences from the west. The edicts of Asoka (265–229 B.C.) were inscribed by that monarch on a huge granite boulder between Junágarh and Gírnár. The Saraostos of Strabo is not improbably identical with Suráshtrá; and if so, the peninsula was included in the conquests of the Indo-Scythian kings (*circa* 190 and 144 B.C.). Its shores were well known to the Alexandrian merchants of the 1st and 2nd centuries, but there is considerable difficulty in identifying the places mentioned.

Of the early history of the country we have but scanty notice. It was probably governed by Satraps under Asoka and the great Maurya kings. For about three centuries, from the 1st century B.C. to the 3rd A.D., the local dynasty of the Sáh kings ruled in Suráshtrá. After the Sáhs come the Guptas of Kanauj, who apparently governed by *senapatis* or viceroys. The later *senapatis* became kings of Suráshtrá, who placed their lieutenants at Valabhi-nagar (identified with the buried city at Wála, 18 miles north-west of Bhaunagar). When the Guptas were dethroned by foreign invaders, the Valabhi kings, whose dynasty was founded by Bhattarka, a Gupta commander, extended their sway over Kutch, Lát-desa (Surat, Broach, Kheda, and parts of Baroda territory), and Málwá (480 A.D.). It was in the reign of Dhruvasena II. (632–640) that the Chinese pilgrim Hiuen Tsiang visited Falapi (Valabhi?) and Sulach'a (Suráshtrá), the inhabitants of which, he says, are indifferent and not given to learning, but profit by the proximity of the sea, and engage much in trade and barter. The people he described as numerous and wealthy, and takes note of the many convents established for the benefit of recluses engaged in the contemplative piety of Buddhism.

How Valabhi fell is not known, but possibly it was subverted by Muhammadan invaders from Sind. The seat of government was then moved farther north, beyond the borders of Káthiáwár, and remained at Anhilwára from 746 to 1297 A.D., during which time various petty kingdoms arose, and the Jethwás became a powerful tribe in the west of Suráshtrá. Anhilwára was sacked by the Muhammadans in 1194, and finally conquered in 1297. The Jhálás are said to have been settled in Northern Káthiáwár by the Anhilwára kings. The Gohels (now in Eastern Káthiáwár) came from the north in the 13th century, retreating before the tide of Muhammadan conquest, and conquering for themselves new seats in the decadence of Anhilwára. The Járejás and the Káthis came into Káthiáwár from the west through Kutch. The sack of Somnáth, in Southern Káthiáwár, by Mahmúd of Ghazní in

1024, and the capture of Anhilwára in 1194, were the prelude to occasional Muhammadan invasions of Káthiáwár. In 1394, Zafar Khán destroyed the temple of Somnáth. He was the father of the first of the Muhammadan kings of Gujarát, who reigned in prosperity from 1403 to 1535, and in decadence to 1573, when Gujarát was conquered by Akbar. The Ahmadábád kings subjected the tributary chiefs of Káthiáwár; they carefully fostered commerce, and developed the ports of Mángrol, Veráwal, Diu, Gogo, and Cambay.

About 1528, the coast was threatened by the Portuguese. Bahádur, defeated by Babar's son Humáyun, sought safety in Diu, and afterwards permitted the Portuguese adventurers to build a factory, which they turned into a fort, after having treacherously killed Bahádur (1536). The island and fort of Diu are still a Portuguese possession. Gujarát, after its conquest by Akbar in 1573, was ruled by Viceroys from the Court of Delhi, until the Maráthás supplanted the imperial power. In 1705, the Maráthás entered Gujarát, and by 1760 had firmly established their rule; but the following half-century was a time of little ease for the tributaries in Káthiáwár, and petty wars were frequent. During the latter part of the eighteenth century, according to Musalmán and Maráthá custom, the Gáekwár, partly for himself and partly for his over-lord the Peshwá, sent yearly a revenue-collecting army (*mulk-giri*) to collect contributions from the chiefs of Western and Northern Gujarát. As this annual armed expedition caused much waste and confusion, the British Government agreed to associate itself with the Gáekwár in recovering the Maráthá tribute from the Káthiáwár States.

In 1803, some of the weaker *tálukdárs* applied to the British Resident at Baroda for protection, offering to cede their territory to the Company. They were then independent of the Peshwá and Gáekwár, with the exception of being bound to furnish contributions. In 1807, the forces of the Company and the Gáekwár advanced into Káthiáwár, and the chiefs entered into engagements to pay a fixed tribute to their over-lords, and to keep the peace towards each other, and maintain order within their own limits. In return, they were secured from the visitations of the *mulk-giri* force, which used to appear at harvest-time, and in default of payment ravaged the crops and fired the villages. Internal warfare and resistance to the supreme authority were ended in 1807–08 by the settlements effected by Colonel Walker; one great feature of which was that the tributes were fixed, and the work of collection was undertaken by the British Government, which also acquired the Peshwá's rights in the Province after the treaty of Poona in 1818. In 1820, the Gáekwár agreed to have his share collected and paid by the British Government.

Since 1822, the sole supreme power in Káthiáwár has been vested

in the Political Agent, subordinate to the Government of Bombay. In 1831, a chief criminal court was established, with a British officer as president, to try criminals whom the local authorities themselves could not deal with.

In 1863, the States were arranged into seven classes, with varying civil and criminal powers. This classification was introduced in pursuance of reforms suggested by Mr. Kinloch Forbes, Acting Political Agent, who had drawn attention in 1860 to the need of reform in the relations of the British Government with the administration of the chiefs. A re-organization of the administrative system was accordingly introduced in 1863, on the recommendation of Colonel Keatinge. Chiefs of the first and second class exercise plenary jurisdiction, both civil and criminal; the judicial powers of the lesser chiefs are graded in a diminishing scale, the residuary jurisdiction being vested in four British political officers, each superintending a group of States, and each residing in a division with the civil powers of a District judge, and the criminal powers of a District magistrate. They commit to the sessions of the Political Agent's criminal court at Rájkot. Civil and criminal appeals lie from the Political Assistants to the Political Agent. (*See Administration.*) The Political Agent controls the whole system. As a rule, no appeal lies from the decision of a chief; but on presumption of mal-administration, his proceedings may be called for and reviewed.

Population.—The enumeration made in 1872 returned the population of the Province at 2,318,642, of whom 1,224,467 were males, and 1,094,175 were females. The Census of February 17, 1881, gave the following figures — total population, 2,343,899; namely, males, 1,218,803; females, 1,125,096. There was therefore in the period of nine years, between 1872 and 1881, a small increase of 25,257, or something over one per cent. The Census of 1881 returned the area at 20,559 square miles; number of towns, 41; villages, 4127; occupied houses, 479,435; unoccupied houses, 185,646. The density of population was 114 persons to the square mile; number of towns and villages per square mile, 0·2; houses per village, 115; houses per square mile, 32·3; persons per house, 4·8.

Of the 4168 towns and villages in Káthiáwár, 1272 contained a population of less than two hundred; 1591 between two and five hundred; 887 from five hundred to one thousand; 296 from one to two thousand; 56 from two to three thousand; 29 from three to five thousand; 22 from five to ten thousand; 8 from ten to fifteen thousand; 4 from fifteen to twenty thousand; and 3 from twenty to fifty thousand.

Classified according to religion, the population is distributed as follows:—Hindus, 1,942,658, or 82·9 per cent. of the whole; Muham-

madans, 303,537, or 12·9 per cent.; Jains, 96,141, or 4 per cent.; Christians, 605; Pársís, 489; Jews, 145; and 'others,' 324. Among the Hindus, Bráhmans number 146,629; Rájputs, 129,018; Darzis, tailor and calico-vendor caste, 29,352; Kúnbís, or cultivators, 316,838; Kolís, also cultivators, 330,840; Kumbhars, potters, who make the village earthenware, now being gradually superseded by workers in brass, 85,118; Lohars, blacksmiths, 26,178; Mhars, menial classes, 123,666; Sonars, goldsmiths, 16,502; Sutárs, carpenters, 26,738; Nápits, barbers, 29,991; Lohánas, 54,968; and many castes few in point of numbers, but representing the minor artisans and labourers in the Káthiáwár village. The Muhammadans (of whom 256,238 are Sunnís and 47,254 Shiás) are divided into the following tribes:—Baluchís, 109; Patháns, 7681; Sayyids, 18,656; Shaikhs, 42,187; Sindhís, 32,524; and 'others,' 202,380.

The occupations of the male adult population are sub-divided by the Census under six main groups:—(1) Professional class, including State officials of every kind and members of the learned professions, 52,445; (2) domestic servants, inn and lodging-house keepers, 9144; (3) commercial class, including bankers, merchants, carriers, etc., 43,404; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, including gardeners, 435,221; (5) industrial class, including all manufacturers and artisans, 176,073; (6) indefinite and non-productive class, comprising general labourers, male children, and persons of unspecified occupation, 502,516.

Administration.—Before 1863, except for the criminal court of the Political Agent established in 1831 to aid the *darbárs* of the several States in the trial of great crimes, interference with the judicial administration of the territories was diplomatic not magisterial; and the criminal jurisdiction of the first and second class chiefs only was defined. In 1863, however, the country underwent an important change. The jurisdiction of all the chiefs was classified and defined; that of chiefs of the first and second class was made plenary; that of lesser chiefs was graded in a diminishing scale. Four Political Assistants, resident in the four divisions of Káthiáwár, now exercise residuary jurisdiction with large civil and criminal powers. They commit to the criminal court of the Political Agent, to whom also civil and criminal appeals lie. Each Assistant has a subordinate who resides at the head-quarters of the *448ránt* or division, and has subordinate civil and criminal powers.

In each division are several sub-divisional *thánádárs*, holding petty magisterial powers over a circle of villages contiguous to their station or *thándá*. These *thánádárs* administer 134 *táluks* out of the whole 187 territorial divisions of Káthiáwár; they have certain powers of general administration as well as judicial authority. But as the larger principalities occupy more than 15,000 of the 20,599 square miles in

the country, the Agency through its Assistants, sub-Assistants, and *thánádárs*, cannot be called upon to administer more than one-fourth of the entire area. There are 20 *thánás* in the Province. The *tálukdárs* are poor, ignorant, and in debt, and have only the semblance of authority. Inter-*tálukdár* relations are characterized by petty squabbles, small jealousies, and endless sub-division of the estates.

The law administered by the *darbári* tribunals of the States is the customary law of the Province, viz. the Hindu and Muhammadan religious law as modified by local or tribal usage. The larger States have procedure and penal codes based on those in use in British India. To meet a particular class of land disputes, however, a special court was established in 1873. This was the Rájasthánik Court, constituted with the assent and at the cost of the chiefs. It decides, under the presidency of a British officer, all disputes as to *girás* or hereditary estates, between the chiefs and the *bháyáds* and *mulgirásiás*, who are for the most part the kinsmen of the chiefs, or the descendants of earlier holders who have been unlawfully or oppressively deprived of their estates. It surveys and maps out the *girásiá's* estate, fixes his miscellaneous dues, and defines his relation to his chief by laying down the extent of his municipal and political obligations. The term of the court's existence was fixed to expire in 1884; but as at the close of 1883–84 there remained on the file 488 cases for disposal, the chiefs have requested an extension of the term. The court was originally established for three years; in 1876, by desire of the chiefs, another five years were allowed to it; again, in 1881, three years were added to its existence. In 1880–81, the court decided 192 cases; 58 per cent. of them in favour of the *girásiás* or claimants to the estates.

There is no general police in Káthiáwár. The chiefs are bound by stipulation to preserve order and indemnify loss through crime committed in their territory. Each State, however, may be said to have a police of its own more or less organized. In 1882–83, the States maintained a force in the aggregate of 5819 foot and 1022 mounted men, at a cost for the year of £83,129. In that year 11,639 offences were reported, and 12,836 persons were arrested, of whom 6641 were convicted and 5272 acquitted. Conviction is generally sought to be secured through the agency of an informer. The daily average of prisoners in Rájkot jail was 76. At the present time life and property are as safe in Káthiáwár as in the Districts of British India.

Communications.—The Bhaunagar-Gondal Railway, named after the States by which it was constructed, is situated wholly within Káthiáwár, and is 193 miles in length: gross earnings for 1882–83, £87,680; net earnings, £35,460, representing a profit of 3½ per cent. on the original capital of £885,000. The following stations are between

Bhaunagar and Wadhwán, the termini of the line: Ghadechi, Vartej, Sihore, Songad, Sanashra, Dhola (Junction), Ujalvar, Ningala, Botad, Kundi, Rampur, Chuda, and Limbdi. A branch line runs from Dhola to Dhoraji, 121 miles, with 10 intermediate stations. Several new lines of railway are in contemplation, the most important being from Wadhwán to Rájkot and Navánagar, Jetpur to Junágarh and Veráwal, Dhoraji to Upleta and Kátiyána, Chitral to Amreli, and Surgád to Pálitána.

The main roads of Káthiáwár converge on Rájkot, the residence of the Agent. New roads are built out of an annual grant of £6315, collected from the chiefs. On works of public improvement, the different States expended £245,000 during 1882-83.

Education has made rapid strides of late years. In 1858, there were 29 schools and 1909 students, which in 1881 had grown to 599 schools with 33,000 scholars; while at the Rájkumar College (with, in 1882, 35 pupils), and 3 high schools, the advantages of a liberal education are enjoyed by many of the chiefs during their minority. The amount spent by the chiefs on education during the year 1882-83, exclusive of the cost of the Rájkumar College and *girásiá* school, was £23,100. The total number of post-offices in the Province in 1882 was 132; and all the larger villages are supplied with letter-boxes. 83,401 persons were vaccinated in 1882.

Agriculture, Commerce, Trade, etc.—The Káthiáwár region is a wealthy one. The land, though not of extraordinary richness, is generally of fair quality and is amply watered. The cotton annually exported supplies one-sixth of the total amount of cotton shipped from Bombay to foreign countries, and a large import of bullion or grain is yearly received by Káthiáwár as part of the price. The total exports in 1882-83 were valued at £3,711,230, and the total imports at £2,179,090. The export of cotton alone was more than £3,000,000 in value, and had doubled since 1880. The imports of grain vary according to the season. The import of grain in 1882-83 was valued at £285,000; metals, timber, and sugar show an increase in the import. It is found that the railway has absorbed a great portion of the export trade from the smaller ports on the coast-line, and concentrated it at Wadhwán in the north-east, and Bhaunagar in the south-east of the Province, while the import trade on the contrary is drawn towards the minor ports. The tribute in 1882, £112,130, is but 3 per cent. on the value of the exports.

The numerous petty courts and their people form a large body of rich resident landlords, spending their rents on their estates; and the ministers, officials, and landholders, of various station and wealth, contribute to impart a brisk vitality to the progress and general wellbeing of the country. A large proportion of the public business of Káthiáwar is conducted by, and at the cost of, the native Darbárs; so

that in a Province with nearly the area of Oudh and the population of Ceylon, a Political Agent and 4 Assistants form the administrative staff. The largest rivers are in course of being bridged; in the principal towns municipal buildings and hospitals have been erected, tanks have been excavated, and wells dug. The four chief States are DHRANGADRA, NAVANAGAR, JUNAGARH, and BHAUNAGAR. Bhaunagar has taken the lead in the material development of her resources, and is the first State in India which constructed a railway at her own expense and risk. The revenue survey in the State is now completed; private enterprise has established 5 steam cotton-press factories, and there is a prosperous trade in timber. Native States in Káthiáwár of secondary importance are Morvi, Porbandar (deriving importance from its fine seaport of the same name), Wadhwán, Limbdi, Gondal, Jhinjuwára, and Wánkáner. The chiefs of Morvi, Wadhwán, and Gondal have experienced the benefits of a European tour.

The principal products of the country are cotton, *bájra*, and *joár*, and in some parts sugar-cane, turmeric, and indigo, which latter product might be more largely cultivated with advantage. The chief handicrafts are gold and silver thread-making, weaving of silk and brocades, the making of red powders, of fragrant oils, of perfumed sticks and powder, of rose and other essences, inlaying ivory, and carving sandal-wood. Horses, formerly of excellent repute, are bred in large quantities, and sheep are plentiful in some parts, their wool forming, together with cotton and grain, the chief articles of export. The principal imports are cotton manufactures, metals, and sugar. Iron is found in many parts of Bárda and Hálál. At Bakharla (a village belonging to the Porbandar State) there are many iron-mines, but these have been abandoned on account of want of fuel for smelting the ore.

The principal wild animals include the lion (found in the Gír range), leopard, hunting cheetah, antelope, hog, hyæna, wolf, jackal, wild cat, fox, porcupine, and smaller vermin.

The lion formerly abounded all over the Káthiáwár peninsula and Gujarát; it even spread to Central India. It is now found only in the Gír hill forest. Compared with the African lion, its mane is shorter, and its colour lighter. The Gujarát lion is about the same size as the tiger, somewhat heavier in bulk, but an inch or two shorter. He is as strong, if not stronger than the tiger. He seeks the loneliest spot for his mid-day sleep, and when disturbed, does not slink away like the tiger, but walks or runs upright without any attempt to hide himself. He avoids man more than either the tiger or the leopard, and never lives near a village or hamlet. The lion is fond of his kind, and moves in family parties, three generations being sometimes found in one party. There are probably not more than a dozen lions left in the Gír forest. These are strictly preserved.

The year 1814–15 was called the 'Rat Year,' from the famine produced by the ravages of this animal. Captain Le Grand Jacob remarked of this pest: 'They appear suddenly in dense masses past all counting, as if springing from the earth, about the harvest season. Nothing can stop them—fires, ditches, and water have been tried in vain; they move along, a mighty host, eating up all that comes in their way. All at once they vanish as if by magic, and for years not one is to be seen; they are about double the size of a common rat, and are of a reddish sandy colour.'

Káthiáwár has many notable antiquities, which have been fully described by Mr. James Burgess, Archæological Reporter to the Government of Bombay, in his illustrated report. Besides the famous inscription of Asoka already referred to, there are a number of rock-cut Buddhist caves and temples at Junágarh, mentioned by Hiuen Tsiang in the seventh century, and some fine Jain temples on Mount Gírnár and Pálitána. At Ghumli, a former capital of the Jethwás, there are extensive ruins.

The principal towns are NAWANAGAR, BHAUNAGAR, JUNAGARH, RAJKOT (the head-quarters of the Political Agent), PORBANDAR, and MANGROL. The last two, as well as VERAWAL, are thriving seaports, with which, as well as anchorages, Káthiáwár appears to be well provided, a list of no less than 60 having been compiled by the Superintendent of Indian Marine Surveys. There are 14 lights along the coast.

Kathirúr.—Town in Kotayam *táluk* or Sub-division of Malabár District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 11° 58′ 40″ N., long. 75° 31′ 54″ E. Population (1871) 3954; (1881) 8177, namely, 3945 males and 4232 females; number of houses, 1251. Hindus numbered 7124; Muhammadans, 1044; and Christians, 9. The head-quarters of the British troops during the Kotiote rebellion (1796–1805).

Kathiwára.—Guaranteed Thákurate or petty chiefship under the Bhopáwar or Bhíl (Bheel) Agency, Central India. This small independent chiefship is situated on the western frontier of the Central India Agency, bordering Rewá Kántha, under the Presidency of Bombay. It is bounded on the north by Ratanmál; on the east and south by Alí Rájpur; and on the west by Chhota Udaipur. The population, consisting of Bhíls and Bhílálás, numbers about 500. Little or no grain is grown, and the Bhíls live by hunting, or by what they purchase from Alí Rájpur with their wages as wood-cutters. The original possessors of this country were Bhíls; but the ancestors of the present Hindu chief, on being driven from Rájputána and Málwá, took refuge in these hills, and eventually established their power over the wild and ignorant inhabitants. The present (1883) chief is Thákur Bahádur Singh. Revenue, about £120.

Káthmándú.—Capital of Nepál State.—*See* KHATMANDU.

Kathna.—River; rising in the Moti-ka-Tál in Sháhjahánpur District, North-Western Provinces (lat. 28° 20′ N., long. 80° 21′ E.), and flowing in a south-easterly direction, it forms for some distance the boundary between Sháhjahánpur and Kheri Districts; it afterwards enters Oudh, and, continuing its course south-east through Kheri and Sítápur Districts, empties itself into the left bank of the Gúmti in the latter District in lat. 27° 20′ N., long. 80° 27′ E. Not navigable, but might probably be made so for small boats.

Káthrota.—Petty State in the Sorath division of Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency. Area, 1 square mile; consists of 1 village, with 1 proprietor. Estimated revenue in 1881, £100; tribute of £5, 4s. is paid to the Gáekwár of Baroda. Káthrota village is about 15 miles west of Lákápádar. Population (1872) 244; (1881) 59.

Katiári. — *Parganá* in Bílgrám *tahsíl*, Hardoi District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Páli *parganá;* on the east by Barwán and Sandi *parganás;* on the south and south-west by Bhojpur and Táligrám *parganás* of Farukhábád District, North-Western Provinces; and on the west by Khákhatmau and Paramnagar *parganás* of Farukhábád, from which it is separated by the Ganges. Originally occupied by Thatheras, Baihár Ahírs, and Dhánuks contemporaneously, and the ruined sites of their forts and villages are visible in all directions. The displacement of these early tribes was effected by conquest by Sombansis from Sandi, under Kánh Randhír Singh; by Báchhils from Sháhjahánpur, under Udai and Tás; and by Katiars from near Gwalior, under Rái Deo Datt, ancestor in the thirteenth generation of the present head of the Katiár clan, Rájá Tilak Singh, son of the late Sir Hardeo Baksh. These families still own the *parganá*, with the exception of two or three villages.

Katiári is a fertile alluvial tract, intersected by streams and channels which in flood-time connect the Ganges and Rámgangá rivers. Its fertility is due to the nearness of water to the surface, and to the deposit of rich loam (*seo*) brought down by the rivers, which in heavy floods often varies from 6 inches to 2 feet in thickness. In such a season, the extraordinary spring crops more than compensate for the loss of the autumn crops drowned by the inundation. Area, 90 square miles, of which 61 square miles, or 67·45 per cent., are cultivated. The uncultivable area is returned at less than 11 per cent. of the whole. Government land revenue, £5880; average incidence, 3s. 0½d. per acre of cultivated area, or 2s. 0⅝d. per acre of total area. Staple products, wheat and barley, which occupy nearly half of the cultivated area; and barley and *joár*, which take up another third. Of the 80 villages comprising the *parganá*, 58½ are owned by Katiár Rájputs, 12 by Sombansis, 5 by Báchíls, 2½ by Bais, and 1 each by Gaurs and Bráhmans. Tenures are as follow:—*Tálukdárí*, 19 villages (the estate

of Rájá Tilak Singh); imperfect *pattidári*, 57; and *zamíndári*, 4. Population (1869) 35,164; (1881) 36,173, namely, males 20,099, and females 16,074. Predominant castes—Bráhmans, Rájputs, Chamárs, Kahárs, Ahírs, Muráos. Government schools in 5 villages.

Kátigorá.—Village in the west of Cachar District, Assam; on the right or north bank of the Barák river, near its bifurcation into the Surmá and Kusiára branches. Lat. 24° 53′ N., long. 92° 38′ E. The Government offices at Kátigorá consists of a *tahsíl*, *thána*, coolie depôt, and hospital. There is also a forest toll and registering office at Siáltek, about a mile from the village. On the opposite bank of the Barák, in Sylhet District, is the old ruined fort of Badarpur, the site of which has been recently cleared of jungle.

Kátipárá.—Village in Khulná District, Bengal; situated on the banks of the Kabadak, 10 miles north of Chándkhálí. Lat. 22° 46′ N., long. 89° 54′ E. This was one of the first spots of land reclaimed in the Sundarbans. It contains a settlement of the Káyasth or writer caste; the rest of the inhabitants are engaged in cultivation, either in the neighbourhood or in the newer Sundarban clearings farther south.

Kátjurí.—River of Cuttack District, Orissa. A deltaic distributary of the MAHANADI, which branches off from the main stream soon after it enters Cuttack District. The Kátjurí itself immediately divides into two, of which the southern branch, under the name of the Koyákhái, passes into Purí District. The northern branch, which retains the name of the Kátjurí, throws off the Suruá, which after a few miles rejoins the parent stream. Lower down, the Kátjurí throws off two other minor distributaries, the Large and Little Devi, which unite after a southerly course of about 20 miles, and fall into the Bay of Bengal in Purí District under the name of the DEVI. A cross stream connects the Mahánadi with the Kátjurí, which latter river ultimately falls into the Bay of Bengal under the name of the JOTDAR.

Katná.—River of Bhágalpur District, Bengal; formed by the united waters of the Talabá, Parwán, and Loran. It is a considerable stream, navigable by boats of about 15 tons burden; and after a course of about 12 miles, falls into the Tíljugá in Monghyr District, in lat. 25° 34′ N., long. 86° 46′ 30″ E.

Katoghan. — Village in Khága *tahsíl*, Fatehpur District, North-Western Provinces; situated on the Grand Trunk Road, about 24 miles from Fatehpur town and 4 from Khága, in lat. 25° 45′ 10″ N., long. 81° 11′ 32″ E. Population (1881) 2896, the prevailing class being Lodhás. Encamping ground, police station, and large *sarái* (native inn).

Katol.—North-western *tahsíl* or revenue Sub-division in Nágpur District, Central Provinces; situated between lat. 21° 9′ and 21° 31′ N., and between long. 78° 17′ and 79° 6′ E. Area, 797 square miles, with 362 towns and villages; number of houses, 31,490. Population (1872)

140,201; (1881) 147,336, namely, males 73,904, and females 73,432; average density, 185 persons per square mile. The total adult agriculturists (male and female) numbered 209,568, or 38·9 per cent. of the whole, the average area of cultivated and cultivable land being 6 acres for each. Of the total area of the *tahsíl* (797 square miles), 73 square miles are held revenue free; while 724 square miles are assessed for Government revenue, of which 447 square miles are cultivated, and 52 square miles are available for cultivation, the remainder being uncultivable waste. Total amount of Government revenue, including cesses and rates levied on land, £2450, or an average of 1s. 8½d. per cultivated acre; amount of rent, including cesses, paid by the cultivators, £30,618, or an average of 2s. 1⅛d. per cultivated acre. The *tahsíl* contains 3 civil and 2 criminal courts, with 12 police stations, and a regular police force of 94 officers and men.

Kátol. — Town in Nágpur District, Central Provinces, and head-quarters of Kátol *tahsíl;* built on an irregular site upon the left bank of the Jám, 40 miles from Nágpur city. Lat. 21° 16′ 30″ N., long. 78° 38′ E. The town contains an ancient temple to Bhawáni, built, without mortar, of layers of sandstone brought from a distance, and grotesquely carved. A ruined fort overhangs the river. Population (1881) 4137, namely, Hindus, 3798; Muhammadans, 220; Jains, 42; and tribes professing aboriginal faiths, 77. School building and market-place.

Kátoria. — Petty State of the Gohelwár division of Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency. Area, 1 square mile; consisting of 1 village, with 2 separate shareholders. Estimated revenue, £200; tribute of £19, 6s. is payable to the Gáekwár of Baroda, and £2, 16s. to the Nawáb of Junágarh. Kátoria village is about 6 miles from Sihor, and 1¼ miles from Songarh station on the Bhaunagar-Gondal Railway. Contains many mango orchards. Population (1872) 394; (1881) 309.

Katosan.—Petty State in Mahi Kántha, Gujarát (Guzerát), Bombay Presidency. Population (1872) 4550; estimated revenue, £2500; tribute of £54, 8s. is paid to the Gáekwár of Baroda. Number of villages in the State, 29; area under tillage, 7797 acres. The State lies north of the Viramgám Sub-division of Ahmadábád. The chief is a Múkwána Kolí, and holds the title of Thákur. He has no *sanad* or patent authorizing adoption.

Katra.—Village in Allahábád District, North-Western Provinces; situated on a pass in the lower Káimur range, on the metalled road between Mírzapur and Rewá, distant from the former 63 miles south-east. Lat. 24° 51′ N., long. 82° 11′ E. The road from Mírzapur rises gradually by successive terraces, and follows the course of the little river Şioti. The summit of the pass has an elevation of 1219 feet above sea-level.

Katra (or *Akbarpur*).—Town and head-quarters of a police circle

(*thána*) in Muzaffarpur District, Bengal; situated on the west bank of the Lakhandái river. Population (1872), Hindus, 1906; Muhammadans, 302; total, 2208. Not separately returned in the Census of 1881. The police station is built on the ruins of an old mud fort west of the village.

Katra Medniganj.—Town in Partábgarh (Pratápgarh) District, Oudh; situated 2 miles from the Sái river, and 4 from Belá town. Population (1869) 2762; (1881) 2069, namely, Hindus, 1312, and Muhammadans, 757. The village contains an immense masonry tank, the largest in Oudh; but it is useless, having been allowed to fall out of repair. Seven Hindu and two Jain temples; also five mosques. Market; annual fair in the month of Kuár, attended by about 12,000 persons.

Kattywar.—Group of Native States, forming the larger part of the peninsula of Gujarát (Guzerát) Province, Bombay Presidency.—*See* KATHIAWAR.

Katuá.—River in Bhágalpur District, Bengal.—*See* PARWAN.

Katúmbar.—*Tahsíl* or Sub-division of the southern division of the Native State of Alwar (Ulwur), Rájputána. Area, 122 square miles. Population (1881) 34,349. Revenue, £14,548. There are 74 villages, 14 of them rent-free. Formerly a *parganá* or District under Jai Singh (Siwai) of Jaipur (Jeypore). The Maráthás retained the place till 1803. The *zamíndárs* of this *tahsíl* are remarkable for their agricultural industry. No local trade of importance.

Katúmbar.—Town in Alwar (Ulwur) State, Rájputána; 60 miles west of Agra, and 95 south of Delhi. Population (1881) 3234. Lat. 27° 20′ N., long. 77° 3′ E. Head-quarters of the Katúmbar *tahsíl*. Thornton describes it as a small town and fort, bombarded and laid in ruins by the Maráthá troops on the 29th October 1803, in their retreat before Lord Lake's army. The British reached Katúmbar two days afterwards, but found it had been abandoned that morning. The pursuit was continued, the Maráthás were overtaken the next day, and totally defeated at LASWARI. The town has been in existence nearly 800 years.

Kátwá (*Cutwa*).—Sub-division of Bardwán District, Bengal; situated between lat. 23° 28′ and 23° 50′ 15″ N., and long. 87° 49′ and 88° 19′ 30″ E. Area, 352 square miles, with 528 villages or towns, and 50,996 houses. Population (1872) 234,753; (1881) 230,209, showing a decrease of 4544 in nine years. Classified according to religion, there were, in 1881—Hindus, 183,036, or 79·5 per cent.; Muhammadans, 47,159, or 20·0 per cent.; and Christians, 14; total, 230,209, namely, 108,830 males and 121,379 females. Proportion of males, 47·3 per cent.; density of population, 654 persons per square mile; number of villages, 1·50 per square mile; persons per village, 435; houses per

square mile, 163; persons per house, 4·5. This Sub-division, which was constituted in January 1847, comprises the three police circles (*thánás*) of Kátwá, Ketugrám, and Mangalkot. In 1883 it contained 1 civil and 3 criminal courts; with a regular police force numbering 66 men, and a village police of 2207 men.

Kátwá (*Cutwa*).—Town, municipality, and head-quarters of Kátwá Sub-division, and of a police circle (*tháná*) in Bardwán District, Bengal; situated at the confluence of the Bhágiráthí and Ajái rivers. Lat. 23° 38′ 55″ N., long. 88° 10′ 40″ E. Population (1872) 7963; (1881) 6820, namely, Hindus, 5723; Muhammadans, 1085; and 'others,' 12. Area of town site, 2730 acres. The municipality, including surrounding villages, had a population in 1881 of 8620. Municipal income in 1882–83, £575; average incidence of taxation, 1s. 2½d. per head. Besides the usual Government courts and buildings, Kátwá contains an aided English school and a charitable dispensary. It is also one of the principal seats of District trade, and the residence of many wealthy native merchants.

Now a purely commercial town, Kátwá was formerly considered the key to Murshidábád. In the early part of the 18th century, the neighbourhood suffered much from the Maráthás, whose yearly raids depopulated the villages along the banks of the river, and converted the country into jungle. The old fort of Kátwá, of which scarcely a vestige now remains, was situated on a tongue of land at the confluence of the Ajái and Bhágiráthí, and is noted as the scene of the defeat of the Maráthás by Alí Vardí Khán. It was a mud building, half a mile in circumference, and mounted 14 guns. Kátwá is considered sacred by the Vaishnavs, as having been the place where their apostle, Chaitanya, took upon himself the life of an ascetic.

A scheme for the construction of a light railway from Bardwán to Kátwá by a private syndicate has been approved by Government, and the necessary steps have been taken for starting the undertaking. Up to the end of the year 1883–84, however, the concessionaires had not succeeded in raising the necessary capital, and as late as January 1885 no commencement had been made of the work.

Kátyár.—Village in Guni *táluk* of Tando Sub-division, Haidarábád (Hyderábád) District, Sind, Bombay Presidency; situated eleven miles west of Tando Muhammad Khán, and twenty miles from Haidarábád city. The head-quarters of a *tappadár*. Population (1881) under 2000. The Musalmáns are chiefly landed proprietors, cultivators, weavers, dyers, and saddle-cloth makers. The Hindus are traders, goldsmiths, and cultivators. Trade and manufactures unimportant, consisting mainly of cloth, grain, *ghí*, mats, and saddle-cloths. Good staging bungalow (travellers' rest-house). The village dates from the time of the Kalhora dynasty.

Kaundha.—Town in Hardoi District, Oudh; situated on the Sháhábád road, 5 miles north-west of Hardoi town. An agricultural village, inhabited chiefly by Chamár Gaurs, whose ancestors dispossessed the Thatheras in the latter days of the Kanauj kingdom. These Gaurs have always had a bad reputation for turbulence and refractoriness. On one occasion, during the native government, their village was burned in retaliation for their having murdered the son of a Musalmán *chakládár*. Even at the present day, their one redeeming quality is said to be that they are not addicted to female infanticide. Population (1869) 2186; (1881) 1737. Bi-weekly market. Government school.

Káuniyá.—Village and station on the Northern Bengal State Railway, in Rangpur District, Bengal; situated on the right bank of the Tístá river. Considerable exports of jute and tobacco.

Kauriála (also called *Karnáli*).—River, rising in Tibet, not far from one of the sources of the Sutlej (Satlaj), in lat. 30° 43′ N., and long. 80° 47′ E. After leaving Tibet through the *Takla Khar*, or Yari Pass, it flows through Nepál generally in a south-easterly direction till it emerges from the lower range of the Himálayas, through a deep, picturesque gorge, known as the Shísha Pání, 'crystal waters.' The stream here is about 300 yards broad and of great depth, with a slow current, closely shut in by precipitous mountains, 2500 feet high. A little below Shísha Pání, the channel widens, with a steeper and rockier descent, causing magnificent rapids nearly half a mile broad. Lower down, the river divides into two, the western branch retaining the name of Kauriála, the eastern being called the Gírwá. A few years ago, the latter was a mere stream, but its volume has gradually increased till now it is considerably larger than the Kauriála. They are both rapid rivers, with pebbly beds, and fords which an elephant can generally cross without difficulty. Eighteen miles from its point of exit from the hills, it enters British territory at the point where it receives the Mohan; and marks the boundary between the Oudh Districts of Kheri and Bahraich. In its course it receives as tributaries on the west bank its former offshoot, the GIRWA; and on the east, the CHAUKA and SARDA, or Sarju. From the point of confluence with the latter stream, the united rivers become the GOGRA; and under this name it ultimately falls into the Ganges on its left bank, in lat. 25° 46′ N., long. 84° 40′ E., a little above Dinapore. The Kauriála is navigable by large boats of about 17 tons burden beyond the limits of British territory. The principal river trade is the export of grain, and of timber, ginger, pepper, wax, *ghí*, and catechu from Nepál. Gold-washing is carried on by a caste called after their occupation Sonáhis. Fish are abundant.

Kauriyá.—*Zamíndárí* estate in Ráipur *tahsíl*, Ráipur District, Central

Provinces; about 80 miles east of Ráipur town, on the Sambalpur road. Area (1881), 113 square miles; number of villages, 113; houses, 3199. Population, 11,000, namely, males 5926, and females 5074; average density of population, 22·4 persons per square mile. The land is poor and mostly waste, and the quit-rent nominal. The chief is a Gond.

Kauriyá.—Large agricultural village in Gádawárá *tahsíl*, Narsinghpur District, Central Provinces; on the high-road from Jabalpur (Jubbulpore) to Bombay, about 3 miles east of Gádawárá. Lat. 22° 55′ 30″ N., long. 78° 33′ E. Important for the large cotton sales transacted in January and February. The manufactures are insignificant. Population (1877) 3167; (1881) 3295, namely, Hindus, 2978; Muhammadans, 126; Jains, 6; persons professing aboriginal religions, 185. The inhabitants are chiefly agriculturists. The Rájá of Gangái is the superior proprietor of Kauriyá, which has a good town school.

Kavái.—Town in Chirakkal *táluk*, Malabár District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 10° 56′ N., long. 75° 58′ E. Population (1881) 6605; number of houses, 999. The north frontier town of Malabár, situated on an island a few miles from Mount Delly. There is a ruined French redoubt here.

Kavale-durga.—*Táluk* or Sub-division of Shimoga District, Mysore State. Area, about 276 square miles, with 1022 villages and towns. Population (1881) 56,561, namely, 31,221 males and 25,340 females. Hindus numbered 54,890; Muhammadans, 1479; and Christians, 192.

The most southern Sub-division of the District. The Tunga river enters it from the south, and flows through it from west to east, receiving a number of minor tributaries, all of which are used for irrigation, though not formed into large tanks, or diverted by anicuts. The tract is hilly, especially the west, and is covered with splendid forest. The chief heights are Kavale-durga, Kabbinada-gudda, and Kundada-gudda, the last being a conspicuous point. From Kabbinada-gudda, ironstone of a superior quality is obtained, the iron made from which the natives hold to be as good as steel. The principal productions are areca-nut, pepper, cardamoms, rice, and coffee. Sugar-cane is also grown to a small extent. Coffee was introduced in 1847, and the cultivation has gradually increased. The only manufactures are stone jugs at Kavale-durga town, and silver cups at Tirtha-halli. The cultivated area is estimated at about 162 square miles; cultivable, 52 square miles; and uncultivable, 62 square miles. The revenue is returned at £43,767. In 1884, the Sub-division contained 1 criminal court, 9 police circles (*thánás*), and a regular police force of 52 men.

Kavale-durga ('*Guarding Hill-fort*').—Hill in Shimoga District, Mysore State; crowned by ruined fortifications, 3058 feet above the

sea. Lat. 13° 43′ 53″ N., long. 75° 9′ 20″ E. By local tradition it is identified with the Kámyakávana of the *Mahábhárata*. Subsequently it was called Bhuvana-giri, and was a stronghold of the Ikkeri chiefs. The old town, formerly head-quarters of the *táluk* of the same name, lies to the west of the hill.

Kávali.—*Táluk* or Sub-division of Nellore District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 14° 40′ to 15° 5′ N., long. 79° 40′ to 80° 10′ E. Area, 521 square miles. Population (1881) 72,913, namely, 36,565 males and 36,348 females, occupying 13,837 houses, in 79 villages. Number of persons per square mile, 140 nearly. Hindus numbered 69,680; Muhammadans, 3147; and Christians, 86. Land revenue, £17,589. The *táluk* contains the following places with over two but under five thousand inhabitants:—Kávali (4927, dwelling in 909 houses); Chinna Annalooryepinápi (4108, in 754 houses); Bráhma-nakráka (3284, in 705 houses); Tummalapenta (2963, in 591 houses); Zaladanki (2874, in 585 houses); and Mangamur (2114, in 486 houses). Water-supply uncertain. Indigo and rice are the staples. Weaving carried on to a considerable extent. There were in 1883 within the *táluk* 1 civil and 2 criminal courts; police stations, 8; regular police, 63 men.

Kávali.—Town in Nellore District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 14° 55′ N., long. 80° 3′ E.; 142 miles from Madras. Population (1881) 4927, namely, 2500 males and 2427 females; number of houses, 909. Hindus numbered 4510; Muhammadans, 408; and Christians, 9. Police lines; school; travellers' bungalow.

Kavandappádi (*Koundapaddi*).—Town in Bhawáni *táluk* or Sub-division, Coimbatore, Madras Presidency. Lat. 11° 23′ N., long. 77° 42′ E. Population (1871) 6898; (1881) 4286, of whom all but five are Hindus; number of houses, 1012.

Káveri.—River of Madras.—*See* CAUVERY.

Káveripák.—Town in Wálájáh *táluk* or Sub-division, North Arcot District, Madras Presidency; 10 miles east of Arcot. Lat. 12° 54′ N., long. 79° 30′ E. Population (1871) 5711; (1881) 5478, namely, 2680 males and 2798 females, occupying 863 houses. Hindus numbered 5248; and Muhammadans, 230. Notable for its irrigation tank, one of the finest in Southern India, which supplies water to about 6000 acres of rice land in 23 villages, and produces an average annual revenue of £3300. The tank is enclosed by a *band* or embankment four miles long. It is fed by a channel from the Palár, and in its surplus weir are the head-waters of the Cortelliár, which supplies Madras city with drinking water. The nominal area of cultivable land under this tank is about 40,000 acres, but deposits of silt have greatly impaired its efficiency. Wild duck and other water-fowl are abundant. Clive here gained a complete victory over the French in 1752. The battle was fought in the moonlight. The fort

of Káveripák, close to the town, was held by French and English in turn during the wars of the Karnátic. The name of the town means 'a dam over the Káveri' (Cauvery).

Káveripatam (*Cauveripatam*).—Town in Krishnagiri *táluk*, Salem District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 12° 25′ N., long. 78° 16′ E. Population (1871) 4410; (1881) 3886, namely, 1846 males and 2040 females; number of houses, 735. Hindus numbered 3581; and Muhammadans, 305. An irregularly built place on the right bank of the Pennár, with a considerable trade in oil-seeds, grain, woven goods, and cattle. The fort, which commands the pass of Pálakod, was taken by the English in 1767, and almost immediately recaptured by Haidar Alí, who strengthened the works, and used them as a support in the following campaign, until his withdrawal above the Gháts, when Colonel Wood again captured the place. In 1790, Káveripatam was Colonel Maxwell's head-quarters before advancing against Tipú Sultán.

Káveripuram.—Town in Bhawáni *táluk* or Sub-division, Coimbatore District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 11° 55′ N., long. 77° 47′ E. Population (1871) 6532; (1881) 4411; number of houses, 849. Hindus numbered 3899; Christians, 460; and Muhammadans, 52. Formerly a fort of some importance, as it stands at the mouth of one of the passes from Mysore, and was an outpost of Tirumala Náyak of Madúra, against the inroads of the Kartars. In 1768 it was captured by Colonel Wood; the following year, after a most spirited defence by Captain Faisan, it was retaken by Haidar Alí. The fort and pass were points of strategic importance throughout the Mysore wars, the pass being much used for convoys in the final struggle.

Kavite.—Town in Berhampur *táluk* or Sub-division, Ganjám District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 19° 35′ 30″ N., long. 84° 35′ E. Population (1871) 4267; (1881) 4574, namely, 2227 males and 2347 females, occupying 841 houses. All but two were Hindus.

Kawardhá.—Petty State attached to Biláspur District, Central Provinces; situated between lat. 21° 51′ and 22° 29′ N., and between long. 81° 3′ and 81° 40′ E. Area (1881), 887 square miles; number of towns or villages, 389; houses, 28,369. Population (1872) 75,462; (1881) 86,362, namely, males 42,706, and females 43,656; average density of population, 97 persons per square mile.

The western part consists of a network of hills known as the Chílpi range, along the base of which spreads the valuable portion of the estate. Much of the soil is excellent, and produces fine crops of cotton. Rice, wheat, and oil-seeds are also grown; and the forest produce, consisting of lac, resin, gum, and *mahuá* flowers, is of some value. Many of the villages are surrounded by unbroken sheets of cultivation, and contain comfortable and thriving communities. Estimated gross annual revenue, £6800; tribute of £1600 is payable to

the British Government. Owing to complaints which had been made for several years of maladministration and oppression by the chief, Kawardhá State is now (1884) temporarily under direct Government administration.

Kawardhá.—Chief town of the Kawardhá chiefship, Biláspur District, Central Provinces, situated at the foot of the Sáletekrí range, 60 miles west of Biláspur town. Lat. 22° 1′ N., long. 81° 15′ E. Population (1872) 6590; (1881) 5685, namely Hindus, 4131; Kabírpanthís, 348; Satnámís, 330; Muhammadans, 456; aboriginal religions, 420. A considerable trade takes place here in cotton and lac. The houses are mostly tiled, a rare feature in Chhattísgarh, and here and there stand prominently forward some imposing structures of masonry. The most important of these is the residence of the chief, containing several double-storied blocks, from the roof of which the town has a good appearance. The high priest of the Kabírpanthí sect also lives here, and his presence attracts devotees from all parts of India.

Kaw-ka-dwút.—Village in the Bílin (Bhileng) Kyaik-hto township, Shwe-gyin District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. The village is on the high-road from Bílin to Kyaik-hto, where it crosses the Thai-hpyu river. Population (1877) 1333; (1881) 1443, chiefly agriculturists and fishermen; number of houses, 233. Local revenue, £26. Police station; cattle market in the dry season twice a week.

Kaw-ka-reit.—Head-quarters of the Haung-tharaw township, Amherst District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. A straggling village on both banks of a small stream of the same name, here spanned by a wooden bridge. Population (1876) 2135; (1881) 2146. Weekly cattle market.

Káyal (the *Cail* of Marco Polo).—Ancient port in Tenkarái Sub-division, Tinnevelli District, Madras Presidency. Known as Kail or Koil, it was long a famous coast town. Marco Polo landed here, and describes it as belonging to Ashar, the eldest of five brothers who reigned in the Maabar or Malabár and Tinnevelli regions. Rashid-ud-dín, a contemporary of Polo, also mentions it as a Malabár port. Abdurrazák names it as 'a place situated opposite the island of Serendib, otherwise called Ceylon.' Nicholas Conti calls it Cahila, the site of a pearl fishery. Vasco da Gama, writing the word Caell, notices that with a Káfir (Christian) people, it had a Muhammadan king. Bishop Caldwell, deriving the name from Káyal, a lagoon or backwater, places Marco Polo's *Cail* on the Támraparní river, half-way between Korkai village and the sea, at an insignificant place now called Old Káyal (Palaya Káyal). Korkai he identifies with the 'Kolkoi emporium' of Ptolemy. Korkai, now five miles inland, was originally on the coast. As the silt accumulated in the sea near the

mouth of the river, or as the line of the coast rose, or from both causes, Korkai was found at length to be too far inland for the convenience of a sea-borne trade. Káyal, the Cail of Marco Polo, rose in its stead on the sea-shore, and attained to still greater dimensions. Káyal has in its turn sunk to a petty village inhabited partly by Muhammadans and partly by Roman Catholics. Population (1881) 944. For two or three miles north of the present village of Káyal, and a mile and a half inland as far as Maramangalam village, the whole plain is covered with broken tiles, remnants of Arabian and other pottery and China porcelain.

Káyalpatnam (or *Coilpatám*).—Town and port in Tenkarái *táluk* or Sub-division, Tinnevelli District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 8° 33′ 30″ N., and long. 78° 10′ E.; 18 miles south of Tuticorin. Population (1871) 11,197; (1881) 11,806, namely, 4519 males and 7287 females. Hindus numbered 4170; Muhammadans, 7445; and Christians, 191; number of houses, 2792. The seaborne trade, which is carried on by Labbays, is estimated at £20,000, chiefly in pearls and precious stones; rice and cocoa-nuts from Ceylon; timber and areca-nuts from Travancore; and palmyra *jagari* (crude sugar). Large salt manufacture. The port was formerly of importance, but has now been superseded by Tuticorin. Káyalpatnam was supposed to have been probably the ancient Cail of Marco Polo. But Bishop Caldwell's interesting and conclusive investigations fix the site of Cail about 8 miles to the north-west.—*See* KAYAL.

Kayan (or *Ken*).—River of Central India.—*See* KEN.

Káyenkolam (*Quilon*).—Seaport on the backwater of the same name, Travancore State, Madras Presidency. Lat. 8° 53′ 28″ N., long. 76° 36′ 59″ E.; containing about 3000 inhabitants. This old town was formerly the capital of an independent State, Quilon; and is near the supposed site of the ancient *Nel Kynda*. In 829 A.D., the Syrian Church was founded here. Captured by the Dutch in 1661. In 1745, the Rájá submitted to Travancore; and fifteen years later, the State was finally absorbed by its more powerful neighbour.—*See* QUILON.

Kázípárá.—Village in the Barásat Sub-division, District of the Twenty-four Parganás, Bengal; situated about 1½ mile from Barásat town, and included within the Barásat municipality. Lat. 22° 43′ 45″ N., long. 88° 33′ E. The site of a large annual fair held in December or January, in honour of a famous Musalmán saint, Pír Ekdil Sáhíb, which is attended by Hindus as well as Muhammadans. About 300 acres of land are held by Muhammadan priests for the maintenance of the mosque, and the due performance of religious services. An account of the legend connected with the saint, and of the miracles performed by him, is given in the *Statistical Account of Bengal*, vol. i. pp. 110, 111.

Kedár Gangá.—Mountain torrent in Garhwál State, North-Western Provinces. According to Thornton, it rises in a snow-clad rocky gorge, in lat. 30° 54′ N., long. 79° 5′ E., and, after a rapid north-westerly course of 10 or 12 miles, falls into the Bhágírathí, on the left side, just below Gangotri, in lat. 30° 59′ N., long. 78° 59′ E. It is subject to sudden floods from the melting of the snow, and therefore varies greatly in breadth and volume from time to time.

Kedár Kántá.—Mountain peak in Garhwál State, North-Western Provinces. Thornton states that this is the highest summit in the Himálayan range which separates the head-waters of the Jumna and the Tons. Lat. 31° 1′ N., long. 78° 14′ E. The mountain slopes gently upward on every side, so that the ascent can be easily performed from any quarter. Beds of white saccharoid limestone form the base; the summit consists of micaceous schist. Forests of oak, pine, yew, horse chestnut, and rhododendron clothe the shoulders; but the greater vegetation abruptly ceases at an elevation of 10,000 feet, leaving the remainder of its height clad only with grasses and alpine plants. Jacquemont found the summit free from snow at the end of May. Kedár Kántá formed a station in the Great Trigonometrical Survey of the Himálayas. Elevation above sea-level, 12,541 feet.

Kedárnáth.—Famous temple and place of pilgrimage in Garhwál District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 30° 44′ 10″ N., long. 79° 5′ 50″ E.; lying immediately below the snowy peak of Mahápanth, at an elevation of more than 11,000 feet above sea-level, and only second in sanctity to the sister shrine of Badrináth. It marks the spot where an incarnation of Sadáshiu or Siva, after fighting his numerous battles, attempted to dive into the earth, to escape his pursuers, the Pándavas, but left his lower limbs above the surface in the shape of a holy rock, the remaining portions of his body being distributed elsewhere. Close to the temple rises a precipice known as Bhairab Jhamp, where devotees formerly committed suicide by flinging themselves from the summit; but the British Government suppressed this practice shortly after annexation. With Kedárnáth are included the temples of Kalpeswar, Madhya-maheshwar, Tunganáth, and Rudranáth, the whole forming the Pánch Kedár, a famous round of pilgrimage, containing the scattered portions of Siva's body. The Ráwal or chief priest is always of the Jangam caste from Mysore. He does not officiate at Kedár itself, but at the branch temples of Gapt, Káshi, and Ukimath, his adopted son or *chelá* taking the present shrine in charge. Immense numbers of pilgrims annually visit Kedárnáth.

Kedgeree (*Khejirí*).—Village in Midnapur District, Bengal; situated on the right bank of the Húglí river, near its mouth. Lat. 21° 53′ N., long. 88° E. Close by is an old English burial-ground, dating from the times when vessels of any draught did not come up to Calcutta,

but anchored near the mouth of the river or at Diamond Harbour. Kedgeree was formerly a telegraph station, which has now been removed to the opposite side of the Húglí.

Kediwári.—One of the mouths by which the Indus empties itself into the sea. Lat. 24° 2′ N., long. 67° 21′ E. Formerly the main channel of the river, with a depth of from 16 to 18 feet, and navigable by large boats and Government river steamers; but since 1845, the HAJAMRO, which in that year was only suited for the passage of small boats during floods, has gradually increased in volume, till it has taken the place of the Kediwári, and is now the largest of the Indus mouths.

Keitha (*Kaitha*).—Village in Rath *tahsíl*, Hamírpur District, North-Western Provinces; lying on the road from Ráth to Jáitpur, 56 miles south-west of Hamírpur town. Lat. 25° 31′ N., long. 79° 36′ E. Population (1881) 1309. Occupied from 1812 to 1828 as a cantonment for British troops, but abandoned on account of the restoration of good order in the Native States after the British occupation of Bundelkhand. The English cemetery still exists, as well as the remains of a few military buildings. Police outpost; good encamping ground.

Kekri. — Municipal town in Ajmere, Rájputána. Distant from Ajmere city 50 miles. Population (1876) 4885; (1881) 6119, namely, 3081 males and 3038 females. Hindus numbered 4932; Muhammadans, 913; and Jains, 274. Formerly a thriving commercial town, but of late years declining in importance. Municipal income (1880–81), £622; expenditure, £496. Water-supply scarce and bad. Head-quarters of a Deputy Magistrate. Post-office and dispensary.

Keladi.—Village in Ságar *táluk*, Shimoga District, Mysore State, Southern India. Lat. 14° 13′ 10″ N., long. 75° 3′ 41″ E. Population (1871) 1064; (1881) 1249. Cradle of a family of local chieftains or *palegárs*, who rose to power in the 16th century, and successively removed their capital to IKKERI and BEDNUR or Nágar. The principal building now standing is a large, plain temple to Rámeswara and Vírabhadra. While two brothers were ploughing a field, the ploughshare of one of them struck against a buried caldron, which contained treasure. Afraid to disturb it, he dreamt that it was desirable to offer a human sacrifice. On hearing this, their two slaves volunteered to be victims on condition that their memory should be preserved. Two mounds are still pointed out as the scene of these human sacrifices. With the accession of the wealth thus obtained, the brothers raised a small force and began to subdue the neighbouring villages. But they were seized and sent to Vijayanagar, and there put into custody. Hearing that a *palegár* had rebelled, they sought permission to be allowed to punish him. In this they succeeded; and as a reward were confirmed in the possession of the places they had captured.

Kelápur.—*Táluk* of Wún District, Berár. Area, 1079 square miles; contains 275 villages, with 14,737 occupied and 936 unoccupied houses. Population (1881) 78,814, namely, 40,194 males and 38,620 females, or 73 persons per square mile. Villages per square mile, 0·25; houses per square mile, 14·5; persons per house, 5·4. Hindus numbered 53,181; Muhammadans, 2402; Jains, 168; aboriginal tribes, 23,006; Sikhs, 56; and Christian, 1. Area occupied by cultivators, 248,941 acres; number of persons engaged in agriculture, 55,060. Total assessed area, 481 square miles; total assessment, £7672; local cesses paid on land, £569. In 1884, the *táluk* contained 1 civil and 1 criminal court; police stations (*thánás*), 8; regular police, 76 men; village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 82.

Keljhar.—Village in Wardhá *tahsíl*, Wardhá District, Central Provinces; about 16 miles north-east of Wardhá town, on the old Nágpur and Bombay high-road. Lat. 20° 51′ N., long. 78° 51′ E. Said to occupy the site of the ancient city of Chakranagar, which was preyed upon by a demon as related in the sacred book *Bhárat.* In the gateway of what remains of a well-built fort, stands a famous image of Ganapati, in whose honour a yearly fair is held on the fifth day of Mágha Suddha, or about the end of January.

Kelod (*Kelwad*).—Town in Kátol *tahsíl*, Nágpur District, Central Provinces; at the foot of the Sátpura Hills, about 7 miles north of Sáoner, on the main road to Chhindwárá. Lat. 21° 27′ 30″ N., long. 78° 55′ E. Population (1881) 4481, namely, Hindus, 3994; Muhammadans, 376; Jains, 86; aboriginal religions, 25. The chief industry of the place consists of the manufacture of excellent brass and copper vessels, which are exported as far as Amráoti and Ráipur. Kelod also produces rough glass ornaments. Several firms of Márwárí money-dealers have been long established, but their business is merely local. The town has a school, police buildings, and a market-place. According to tradition, Kelod was founded 14 generations ago by the ancestors of the present *málguzár* and *desmukh*, at the same time that a neighbouring Gaulí chief formed the extensive tank at Jatghar, near the town. The fort, now almost in ruins, was probably built in the early Maráthá period.

Kelsi.—Creek on the coast-line of Ratnágiri District, Bombay Presidency; lies midway between the ports of Bánkot and Suvarndurg. The entrance of the creek is narrow and difficult. Along the southern bank are a long spit of sand and a salt-marsh. The creek is navigable by small canoes for a distance of ten miles. The waters abound in fish.

Kelsi.—Port in Ratnágiri District, Bombay Presidency; situated 64 miles north by west of Ratnágiri town, and 3 miles south-east of Bánkot. Betel-nut is the chief article of export. Lat. 17° 55′ N., long. 73° 6′ E. Average annual value of trade during the five years ending 1881–82

returned as follows:—Imports, £4704; exports, £2572. A yearly fair is held, attended by about 25,000 people. Population in 1872, 3291. Not returned separately in the Census Report of 1881. For customs purposes Kelsi is grouped with two other ports, Bánkot and Harnai, under the Suvarndurg division.

Kelva (or *Kelve, Kelve-Mahim*).—Port in the Mahim Sub-division of Thána District, Bombay Presidency.—See MAHIM.

Ken (or *Kayan;* the *Karnávati* of Sanskrit, and *Kainas* of the Greeks).—River of the North-Western Provinces; rises in the Native State of Bhopál, on the north-western slopes of the Vindhya mountains, and, flowing in a general northerly direction, past the town of Bánda, falls into the Jumna a few miles below Pailání. Its source, in lat. 23° 54′ N., long. 80° 13′ E., has an elevation of 1700 feet above sea-level. After a course of about 35 miles, it falls in a cataract over the brow of the Bandair range, at Pipáriyá *ghát.* It then takes a westerly direction, and, flowing parallel to the base of the mountains, receives the waters of the Patná and the Sunár on its left bank. Traversing the Native State of Panna, it enters Bánda District at the village of Bilharká (lat. 25° 8′ N., long. 80° 25′ E.), and is there joined by its affluents, the Koil, Gawain, and Chandráwal. After a total course of 230 miles, it falls into the Jumna, on the right bank, near Chilla (lat. 25° 47′ N., long. 80° 33′ E.).

Numerous rapids and cataracts interrupt the bed of the Ken, and the channel is too much blocked by rocks to allow of navigation. Small craft of light burden, however, proceed in the rainy season from the Jumna as far up as the town of Bánda, a distance of 35 miles. Fish abound; and beautiful quartz or basalt pebbles, found in the bed, are in great request for the manufacture of ornaments. The natives consider the water unwholesome. In time of flood, the volume of water at Kharauní amounts to 450,000 cubic feet per second; at Bánda, to 500,000 cubic feet. The Ken flows in a deep and well-defined bed, scoured out to a great width through the yielding clay of Bundelkhand by the flood-water. It is nowhere fordable in the rainy season. A system of irrigation canals, drawing their supplies from the Ken and the Bágain, is now (1884) under consideration. The project consists in damming up the cold-weather supply of the river by erecting a weir at Kharauní, where it forces its way across a natural granite barrier, through an outlying spur of the Vindhya range. The proposed capacity of the canal will be 350 cubic feet of water per second, 300 of which will be drawn from the Ken, and 50 from the Bágain. The length of the main line will extend to about 50 miles, with a system of distributaries commanding a gross area of about 1000 square miles. Estimated cost, £133,309.

Kenchengudda.—Town in the Bellary Sub-division of Bellary

District, Madras Presidency; situated on the banks of the Tungabhadra. Lat. 15° 36′ N., long. 76° 54′ 10″ E. Population (1871) 1041; (1881) 998; number of houses, 209. Hindus numbered 898; and Muhammadans, 100. The town is now almost in ruins, but was the head-quarters of one of the principal *palayams* or military *zamíndárís* in former times. An old palace in the ruins has a long Hali Kánarese inscription on the ceiling of one of its chambers.

Kenda. — *Zamíndárí* estate in Biláspur *tahsíl*, Biláspur District, Central Provinces, adjoining the Láphá estate. Area, 298 square miles, of which less than 14,000 acres are cultivated; the hilly portion contains some fine *sál* forests, and much lac is exported to Mírzápur. Number of villages, 79; houses, 3358. Population (1881) 12,252, namely, males 6421, and females 5831. The chief is a Kunwár.

Kendrapárá. — Sub-division of Cuttack District, Orissa. Area, 1424 square miles, with 4400 villages and 99,127 houses. Population (1881), males 283,571, and females 291,541; total, 575,112. Classified according to religion, there were — Hindus, 564,619; Muhammadans, 9852; Sikhs, 8; Christians, 174; and 'others,' 459. Average density of population, 404 persons per square mile; villages per square mile, 3; persons per village, 131; houses per square mile, 75; inmates per house, 5·8. This Sub-division, which was constituted in January 1859, comprises the 4 police circles of Kendrapárá, Patámundái, Tírtol, and Aul. In 1883 it contained 1 magisterial court, a regular police force 106 strong, and a village watch numbering 1114 men.

Kendrapárá.—Town, municipality, and head-quarters of Kendrapárá Sub-division, and of a police circle, Cuttack District, Orissa; situated a few miles north of the Chitartalá branch of the Mahánadi. Lat. 20° 29′ 55″ N., long. 86° 27′ 35″ E. Population (1872) 13,268; (1881) 15,696, namely, males 7616, and females 8080. Classified according to religion, the population in 1881 consisted of — Hindus, 14,033; Muhammadans, 1658; 'others,' 5. Area of town site, 2880 acres. In 1883–84, the municipal revenue was £494, of which £421 was derived from taxation; average incidence of taxation, 6⅜d. During the Maráthá rule, a magistrate (*faujdár*) was stationed here for the purpose of checking the depredations of the Rájá of Kujang, who had for centuries preyed upon the surrounding country.

Kendrapárá Canal.—A branch of the Orissa Canal System. It starts from the right flank of the Birupá weir, and proceeds along the north and west bank of the Mahánadi, and of its distributaries the Chitartalá and the Nún, in a due easterly direction for 42½ miles, to Marsághái, in tidal waters, 23 miles from False Point. This canal was opened in May 1869. A branch canal, 40 miles in length, taking off from the north or left bank of the Kendrapárá Canal, passing along the

north bank of the Birupá and Bráhmaní, and falling into the latter river at Patámundái near the Dhámrá estuary, has just been completed. An extension of the Kendrapárá Canal, from Marsághái towards the sea-coast, for a distance of 15 miles, was sanctioned in 1872–73, in order to improve the communication with False Point harbour, and was opened to the Jambu channel near the seaboard in July 1881. The Kendrapárá Canal proper is designed to irrigate 385 square miles; but as less than two-thirds of this area will require simultaneous irrigation, the canal only carries water for 234 square miles, or 150,000 acres. The Patámundái branch canal is intended to irrigate 113,000 acres. The extension from Marsághái towards False Point is intended for navigation only. The head lock of the Kendrapárá Canal, at the Birupá weir, is 100 feet from sill to sill, and 17 feet wide. The sills are 59·5 feet above sea-level, and the gates 18½ feet in height. The canal is divided into 7 reaches, with a width at water-line varying from 75 to 160 feet, a uniform depth of 7 feet, a fall ranging from 0 to 6 inches per mile, and a minimum capacity of discharge varying in the different reaches from 340 to 740 cubic feet per second in the dry season, and up to 2000 in the rains. The total fall of the canal from its head to its outfall at Marsághái is 64 feet, the levels being adjusted by means of 8 locks, the last of which is a tidal lock at Marsághái, with a fall of 10 feet, the upper sill being 6 feet above mean sea-level, and the lower sill 4 feet below. At low-water spring tide there is always 3½ feet of water on the lower sill. At Mutri, in the 37th mile, is an escape or waste weir capable of discharging 360 cubic feet per second. Six syphon culverts have been led underneath the canal, and 4 traffic bridges, in addition to the lock bridges, have been constructed across it.—*See* also MAHANADI RIVER.

Kenduli.—Village in Bírbhúm District, Bengal; situated on the north bank of the Ajai. Lat. 23° 38′ 30″ N., long. 87° 28′ 15″ E. Birthplace of Jayadeva, a disciple of the Vishnuvite reformer Chaitanya and Sanskrit poet, the author of the celebrated *Gita Govinda*, a Sanskrit poem in praise of Krishna. An annual fair in honour of Jayadeva is held in the village on the last day of Mágh (the commencement of February), and is attended by upwards of 50,000 persons.

Kengeri (or *Ten-geri*, 'Southern Street').—Village in the Bangalore Sub-division of Bangalore District, Mysore State, Southern India; 9 miles south-west of Bangalore city. Lat. 12° 54′ N., long. 77° 2′ E. Population (1871) 2155; (1881) 1819. The town was destroyed by Tipú Sultán to prevent its sheltering the forces of Lord Cornwallis. In 1866, an Italian gentleman, Signor De Vecchi, attempted, with the assistance of Government, to revive sericulture in this neighbourhood. He imported cartoons of silkworm eggs from Japan, and established a steam filature at Kengeri, where the delicate process

of winding was performed by female orphans from the Bangalore convent, under the superintendence of native nuns. But a severe drought proved fatal to the imported worms, and though the stock was twice replenished, the industry fell for a time into its former state of depression. It is, however, fast reviving, not only here, but throughout Bangalore District.

Keobrang.—Pass in Bashahr State, Punjab, over a ridge forming the boundary between Kunáwar and Chinese territory. Lat. 31° 36′ N., long. 78° 54′ E. Thornton states that the pass lies within the Chinese boundary, but that the severity of the climate prevents their establishing an outpost on the spot, so that Europeans have repeatedly visited it. It has been found free from snow at the end of July. Elevation above sea-level, 18,313 feet.

Keonthal (*Kiunthal*).—One of the Punjab Hill States, under the political superintendence of the Government of the Punjab; lies around Simla Station, between lat. 30° 55′ 30″ and 31° 6′ N., and between long. 77° 10′ and 77° 25′ E. Area, 116 square miles; number of villages, 838; houses, 6318; number of families, 6654. Total population, 31,154, namely, males 17,329, and females 13,825; average density of population, 269 persons per square mile. Classified according to religion, there were, in 1881—Hindus, 30,819; Muhammadans, 307; Sikhs, 18; Christians, 10. The revenue in 1883 was estimated at £6000. Principal products, opium and grain. The present Rájá (1883) is Balbír Sen, a Rájput by caste, who succeeded his father Mahendra Sen in 1882. The chief of Keonthal was formerly styledRáná, but was raised by the British Government to the higher rank of Rájá in 1857.

After the Gúrkha war a portion of the territory of Keonthal, which had been occupied by the Gúrkhas, was sold to the Mahárájá of Patiála. In consideration of this, no tribute is paid by the Keonthal Rájá for the remainder of his State, which was restored to him by *sanad* in 1815, on the expulsion of the Gúrkhas from the country. The Rájá holds another *sanad*, dated September 1815, conferring on the Keonthal chief, and his heirs for ever, paramount authority over the petty States of THEOG, KOTHI, GHUND, MADHAN (or Kiári), and RATESH, the chiefs of which, with their descendants, are bound to regard the chief of Keonthal as their liege, and to pay an annual tribute as follows:—Kothi, £50; Theog, £50; Ghúnd, £25; Madhan, £25. A third *sanad* was granted to Keonthal, conferring Púnnar on him and his heirs. It is dated 1823, though the transfer was authorized in 1816. The reasons given for this measure were the isolated position of Púnnar, the turbulent character of its inhabitants, the indisposition of Government to extend its teritorries in the hills, and a desire to confer a benefit on Keonthal. The tribu-

taries of Keonthal are :—The Ráná of KOTHI, the late chief of which obtained that rank for services during the Mutiny—area of his estate, 36 square miles; estimated population (1875) 2500; and revenue, £600. The Thákur of THEOG—area of estate, 10 square miles; estimated population (1875) 3000; and revenue, £330. The Thákur of MADHAN—area of estate, 13 square miles; estimated population (1875) 1000; and revenue, £160. The Thákur of GHUND—area of estate, 3 square miles; estimated population (1875) 1000; and revenue, £100. The Thákur of RATESH—area of estate, 3 square miles; estimated population (1875) 437; and revenue, £20. The population of these subordinate States are not shown separately in the Census Report of 1881, but are included within the figures for Keonthal.

Kerá (*Kheda*).—Village in Cutch (Kachchh) State, Bombay Presidency; situated 13 miles south of Bhúj. Noted for its old Sivaite temple, dating from perhaps the end of the 10th century, which was thrown down by an earthquake in 1819. The following description is condensed from an account furnished by Mr. James Burgess, Archæological Surveyor to the Government of Bombay. The shrine is still standing, and measures 8 feet 6 inches square inside, with walls 2 feet 7 inches thick, surrounded by a *pradakshina* or path 2 feet 6 inches wide—the *vimana* measuring 24 feet over all. This temple has been built partly of red and partly of yellowish stone, very hard, and standing exposure very well. Of the *mandap*, which was 18 feet 9 inches wide, only a part of the north wall with one window in it is left; all the rest is a heap of ruins. The sculptures on the walls are not numerous, but are superior to the usual run of such work. The elaborate ornamental work on the faces of the spire has been largely undercut; it represents the outlines of a *chaitya* window, repeated over a triangular face, with human figures between. Of these triangles of sculpture there are eight on each side, gradually diminishing in size as they rise higher and higher, one behind another, like so many gable ends. The corners of the shrine are surmounted by miniature spires, reaching not quite half the height of this sculpture, and above them are four other similar, but set farther inwards; above these and the sculpture rises the massive outline of the great central spire or *sikhára*, all beautifully carved. To light the *pradakshina*, there is a window of perforated stone on each side.

To the south-east of Kerá is a small village on rising ground, above which stands the mausoleum of Pír Ghulám Ali. The principal buildings within the enclosure are :—(1) The *dargah*, facing the east with one large dome, and in front of it three smaller ones. Inside is the tomb, under a canopy, supported by 12 small columns. Against the pall lies a representation of a Múghal *pír*, a water-colour portrait of Alí, with a nimbus round his head, and below him Hassan and Husain, also with

aureoles; and in a third frame, Muhammad in a blue *chogá*, but the face left blank,—a curious compromise between the prohibition in the Kurán and the desire for a palpable representation of the objects of reverence. (2) A canopy or *chhatra* stands in the middle of the quadrangle in front of the *dargah*, with a flat roof and balconies on each side. (3) Dádi Alí Sháh's *dargah*, with lantern minarets; a neat plain building, with three doors in front and two in the east end. The roof is supported by two arches, the whole width of the building. It contains no tomb, the body having been buried in Iran. These buildings were erected about eighty years ago, Ghulám Alí Sháh having died at Karáchí (Kurrachee) in 1796. The estate attached to the establishment is said to yield between £1800 and £1900 per annum, which is expended in charity. Near the village is a large and strong fort. A considerable trade in cloth and ironware is carried on.

Kerála (or *Chera*).—Ancient kingdom of Southern India, one of the divisions of the Dravida country.—*See* CHERA.

Kerowlee (*Karauli*).—Native State in Rájputána.—*See* KARAULI.

Kerúr.—Town in the Bádámi Sub-division, Bijápur District, Bombay Presidency; 14 miles south by east of Kaládgi, and 11 miles north-west of Bádámi. Lat. 16° 1′ N., long. 75° 36′ E. Population (1872) 7096; (1881) 3833. A fortified town, on the Sholápur-Hubli road. The fort is on a gentle slope about 300 yards south-west of the town. As the town increased, a new market was built to the east of the fort, and a colony of weavers established themselves in the southern market, where they carry on a flourishing trade. The town and fort contain several temples.

Kesabpur.—Town in Jessor District, Bengal; situated on the Harihár river about 18 miles south of Jessor town. Lat. 22° 54′ 45″ N., long. 89° 15′ 40″ E. The town is the second largest entrepôt of commerce in the District, and a centre of the sugar trade. It contains numerous *kárkhánás* or refineries, conducted by Calcutta native merchants. Srípur, a suburb on the other side of the river, almost entirely consists of sugar-refineries. The town has an import trade in rice; and manufactures large quantities of earthen pots and vessels for the purpose of sugar manufacture. Another local manufacture is brasswork. Population (1881) 6405, namely, Hindus, 3236; Muhammadans, 3168; 'others,' 1. Area of town site, 640 acres. Municipal income (1882–83), £73, 10s. Two large *bázárs* or market-places.

Kesaria.—Petty State in the Jháláwár division of Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency. Area, 3 square miles. Population (1872) 186; (1881) 231. Consists of 1 village, with 2 separate proprietors. The revenue in 1882 was estimated at £165; tribute of £27, 16s. is paid to the

British Government. Three miles north of Lakhtar station on the Bombay, Baroda, and Central India Railway.

Kesariya.—Village and head-quarters of a police circle (*tháná*), Champáran District, Bengal. Population (1881) 5256, namely, Hindus, 4753; and Muhammadans, 503. Two miles south of the village, on the road to Sattar *ghát*, stands a lofty brick mound 1400 feet in circumference at its base, capped by a solid brick tower, 62 feet high. The date of this tower (a memorial of Buddhism) is assigned by General Cunningham to between 200 and 500 A.D. The common people call it Rájá Ben *ka deora*, after a traditional monarch who is said to have been one of five Supreme Emperors of India. A tank a little to the south is also called after this king.

Keslábori.—Ancient village in Chándá District, Central Provinces; beneath the Chimúr Hills, 19 miles north-north-east of Segáon. Lat. 20° 25′ N., long. 79° 17′ 30″ E. Once a large town, but now reduced to a few huts, with a population in 1881 of only 103 souls. It has a considerable area under rice, irrigated by a hill spring, the water of which proves injurious when drunk by strangers. Near the village is the Rámdighi pool, a basin about 40 feet in diameter and of unknown depth, hollowed out of the rock, into which falls, during the rains, a stream of some size from a precipice above. According to tradition, Ráma formed the pool; and an ancient temple still overhangs it, in which are two good carvings of a warrior with shield and straight sword.

Kesod.—Town in the Sorath division of Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency. Population (1872) 3169; (1881) 2589, chiefly Lohánas; the decrease is due to the famine of 1878–79. A walled town with an inner citadel, 25 miles south-west of Junágarh. Has a thriving trade. Known in Persian histories as Kesoj.

Keti.—Port, town, and municipality in the Jerruck Sub-division, Karáchí (Kurrachee) District, Sind, Bombay Presidency. Population (1881) 2141. Situated in lat. 24° 8′ 30″ N., long. 67° 28′ 30″ E., close to the sea, on the Hajámro branch of the Indus. Chief port in the Indus delta for river and sea-going boats. Has taken the place of Ghorabári, a little farther inland on the same branch, which was the principal commercial town of the surrounding tract in 1845. Ghorabári, or Bandar Vikar, was founded about 1826, and ten years later contained 1000 inhabitants. In 1836, Mír Nasir Khán, brother of the reigning Mír at Haidarábád, owned Ghorabári, and drew from it an annual revenue of over £10,000, the customs of the port alone having been farmed out for £5200; while 180 vessels frequented the harbour every year. In 1837, the exports (rice, *ghí*, grindstones) were valued at £26,500, and the imports (English cloth, raw cotton, metals, dates, slaves) at £10,050. In those days no route presented such

facilities for the transport of goods to the Upper Delta as the Hajámro branch. In 1848, however, the Hajámro capriciously receded, and Ghorabári immediately dwindled into comparative insignificance. The trade of the deserted port then betook itself to the first Keti, nearer the sea; but about 1853 the place was swept away by a flood, and a new site was chosen in the neighbourhood. This second Keti, the existing town and harbour, now about thirty years old, soon attracted the river trade, and at present ranks next to Karáchí among the ports of Sind.

During the inundation season, nothing is done in the way of trade, and the town has a deserted look; about November the port is open for sea-going vessels. Exports, to the Bombay and Madras Presidencies, to Sonmiáni, and Makrán, comprise grain, pulses, oil-seeds, wool, cotton, drugs, dyes, saltpetre, and firewood. Imports, from the same places and the Persian Gulf, include cocoa-nuts, cotton piece-goods, metals, sugar, spices, coir, and shells.

The following statement shows the value of the sea-borne trade of Keti in 1873-74:—To and from ports within Sind—exports, £164,135; imports, £19,424: to and from ports beyond Sind—exports, £116,188; imports, £37,629. The gross amount of customs duties collected during the same year was £3070, being import duties, £48, and export duties, £3022. During the prevalence of the south-west monsoon, trade remains at a standstill, vessels being unable to make the harbour from seaward. In the brisk season, from 70 to 90 boats of various sizes may be seen lining the *bandar*. Sea-borne goods for transit up the Indus must be transferred to river boats. The total number of ships which entered the port from all quarters in 1873-74 was 1295, with a gross tonnage of 41,073 tons; the total number clearing for all ports was 1323, with a gross tonnage of 41,991 tons. The average annual value of the imports for the five years ending 1882-83 was £30,338, and the exports £66,723. The value of the imports in 1882-83 was £25,426, and exports £60,301. The average number of vessels for the five years ending in 1882-83 that entered the port was 266, with a gross tonnage of 6277 tons; and that cleared, 764, with 20,698 tons. The number of vessels that entered the port in 1882-83 was 321, tonnage 7967; that cleared, 900, tonnage 23,567.

The river trade of Keti, though considerable, is fluctuating. The following statement gives particulars for 1873-74:—Value of down-river trade, £274,268; value of up-river trade, £46,692; entered, down-river boats, 2915, with a burden of 1,241,155 *maunds*; cleared, up-river boats, 2862, with a burden of 1,204,336 *maunds*. No later statistics are available for the river trade.

The town has several times been in danger of floods, but, owing to its slightly elevated position, has hitherto escaped the fate of its pre-

decessor. Communication by road with Tatta, 60 miles south-west; with Mírpur Sakro, 32 miles south-south-west; and with Ghorabári, 13 miles. Subsidiary jail, custom-house, Government charitable dispensary. A municipality was established in 1854. In 1882–83, the municipal income was £624; municipal expenditure, £389; incidence of municipal taxation, 4s. per head.

Keukuchi.—Halting-place in Bashahr State, Punjab, on the north-east slope of the Chárang Pass. Lat. 31° 27′ N., long. 78° 37′ E. According to Thornton, the abundance of fuel and herbage causes this spot to be selected as a camping-ground. The Nangalti, a rapid unfordable torrent, flows down the pass, and falls into the Tidang a few miles below Keukuchi. Elevation above sea-level, 12,457 feet.

Keunjhar.—Native State of Orissa, lying between lat. 21° 1′ and 22° 9′ 30″ N., and between long. 85° 14′ and 86° 24′ 35″ E. Bounded on the north by Singbhúm District; on the east by Morbhanj State and Balasor District; on the south by Cuttack District and Dhenkánal State; and on the west by Dhenkánal, Pal Lahára, and Bonái States. Keunjhar is divided into two wild tracts—Lower Keunjhar, including the valleys, and Upper Keunjhar, embracing the mountainous highlands. The latter consist of great clusters of rugged crags, which afford almost inaccessible retreats to their inhabitants; and which, although from the plains they appear to be sharply ridged or peaked, have extensive table-lands on their summits, equally fit for pasture and for tillage. The BAITARANI river takes its rise in the hilly north-western division. Principal peaks—Thákwáni, 3003 feet; Gandhá-Madán, 3479 feet; Tomák, 2577 feet; and Bolat, 1818 feet.

Keunjhar is the second largest of the Orissa States, with an area of 3096 square miles. The Census of 1872 thus returned the population, according to religion—Hindus, 113,207, or 62·2 per cent.; Muhammadans, 487, or 0·3 per cent.; Christian, 1; 'others,' consisting of aboriginal tribes who still retain their primitive forms of faith, 68,176, or 37·5 per cent.; total, 181,871, namely, males 90,879, and females 90,992. Classified according to race, there were, in 1872—aboriginal tribes, 44,438, or 24·3 per cent., principally composed of Kols (10,990), Gonds (10,407), Sáonts (7172), and Savars (5125); semi-Hinduized aborigines, 49,294, or 27·2 per cent., mainly composed of Páns (19,827), Bhuiyás (18,481), and Bathudis (7898); Hindu castes, 87,651, or 48·2 per cent., the most numerous castes being Khandáits (22,225), Bráhmans (8583), and Gaurs (6743); Muhammadans, 487, or 0·3 per cent.

In 1881, a different system of classification was adopted by the Census officers, and no ethnological division seems to have been made. The total population had increased to 215,612, namely, males 109,041, and females 106,571; average density, 69·7 persons per

square mile; number of villages, 1638; number of occupied houses, 38,212. Classified according to religion, there were, in 1881—Hindus, 195,695; Muhammadans, 447; Sikhs, 7; aboriginal tribes still outside the pale of Hinduism, 19,408; 'others,' 55. The principal village and residence of the Mahárájá is Keunjhar, situated on the Midnapur and Sambalpur road, lat. 21° 37′ 25″ N., long. 85° 37′ 31″ E.

Keunjhar State originally formed part of Morbhanj; but about 200 years ago, the tribes of this part finding it a great hardship to travel through the perilous forests of Morbhanj to obtain justice from their prince, separated themselves, and set up the brother of the Morbhanj Rájá as their independent ruler. Since then 27 chiefs have ruled. The last prince rendered good service during the Kol rebellion in 1857, and was rewarded by Government with the title of Mahárájá. He died in 1861, without legitimate issue. On Government nominating his natural son, the present Mahárájá, to the throne, a dispute arose as to the succession, which ultimately culminated in an insurrection of the Bhuiyá and Juang tribes in favour of an alleged adopted son, which called for the intervention of British troops before it was suppressed. Estimated annual revenue of the State, £6339; tribute, £197. The chief's militia consists of a force of 1758 men and 318 village police. A Government elephant (*khedá*) establishment was formerly maintained at Keunjhar under the superintendence of an English officer, and a large number of valuable animals were captured; but the establishment has since been abolished. The Mahárájá maintains 49 schools in the State, attended in 1881 by 962 pupils. A number of other unaided schools exist. Metalled roads have been made in the neighbourhood of the capital village, and a postal establishment is maintained. Keunjhar, besides being one of the most important, is at the same time one of the best, if not the best, administered of the Orissa States.

Keunthál.—One of the Punjab Hill States.—*See* KEONTHAL.

Kewáni.—River of Kheri District, Oudh; takes its rise in the Jumáita *tál*, near the village of Jumáita, 4 miles south-west of Kheri town; flows a tortuous south-south-east course, and falls into the Chauká, at a distance of 40 miles from its source, as the crow flies. Near its source it is a narrow and shallow stream, but it deepens as it nears the Chauká. Non-navigable, and fordable everywhere, except during the rains. It has a breadth of about 50 feet, and an average depth of 9 feet during the rainy season. The large villages of SANDA and NABINAGAR are situated on its banks.

Kháb.—Village in Bashahr State, Punjab; lies on the left bank of the Sutlej (Satlaj), which flows between high cliffs of slate and granite. Lat. 31° 48′ N., long. 78° 41′ E. Thornton states that Kháb is the highest point where the grape ripens in Kunáwár, and that fields, vine-

yards, and apricot trees surround the village, which is noted for the excellence of its fruit. Elevation above sea-level, 9310 feet.

Khábul.—Village in Bashahr State, Punjab; situated 1 mile from the right bank of the Pábar river, on the route from Subáthu to the Barenda Pass. Lat. 31° 15′ N., long. 77° 58′ E. The surrounding country is well tilled, irrigated by the mountain streams, and wooded with sycamores, chestnuts, and apricots. Elevation above sea-level, 8400 feet.

Khadki. — Town in Poona District, Bombay Presidency. — *See* KIRKI.

Khága.—North-eastern *tahsíl* of Fatehpur District, North-Western Provinces; lying along the south bank of the Ganges, and traversed by the East Indian Railway. Area, 274 square miles, of which 129·5 square miles are cultivated, 57·9 square miles cultivable, and 86·8 square miles barren waste. Population (1881) 136,947, namely, males 68,712, and females 68,235; average density of population, 500 persons per square mile. Classified according to religion, there were, in 1881 — Hindus, 115,642; Muhammadans, 21,304; 'others,' 1. Number of villages, 335, of which 257 contained less than five hundred inhabitants. Land revenue, £19,925; total Government revenue, £23,433, including local rates and cesses; rental paid by cultivators, £36,856. The *tahsíl*, which comprises the two *parganás* of Hathgáon and Hotila, contained in 1884, 9 civil and criminal courts; number of police circles (*thánás*), 3; strength of regular police, 180 men; *chaukídárs*, or village police, 463.

Khága.—Town in *parganá* Hathgáon, Fatehpur District, North-Western Provinces, and head-quarters of Khága *tahsíl*, situated on the Grand Trunk Road, about 20 miles from Fatehpur town; lat. 25° 46′ 28″ N., long. 81° 8′ 46″ E. Population (1881) 1643, the prevailing caste being Chamárs. Police station, post-office, good market, station on the East Indian Railway. A religious fair is held here in the month of October.

Khágan.—Mountain valley in Hazárá District, Punjab.—*See* KAGAN.

Khagaul.—Town and municipality in Patná District, Bengal; situated a short distance south of Dinápur. Lat. 25° 34′ 30″ N., long. 85° 5′ E. The population, which in 1872 numbered only 5257, had increased by 1881 to 14,075, namely, males 6584, and females 7491. Classified according to religion, the population consisted of—Hindus, 11,771; Muhammadans, 1997; 'others,' 307. Municipal income (1881), £175; (1882–83), £322; average incidence of taxation, 4⅞d. per head of population. The Dinápur railway station is just outside the town; which, indeed, has only sprung into importance since the opening of the railway.

Khaghoriá. — Village in the Chittagong Hill Tracts, Bengal;

situated on the Myání tributary of the Kásálang river. In 1872–73, a small colony of Gúrkhas from the borders of Nepál was established here, with the object of getting the jungle cleared through their means. A sum of £10 was advanced to each family by the Deputy Commissioner, to enable the immigrants to purchase cattle and ploughs, and for their subsistence until they could raise a crop. The settlers, however, were unable to endure the deadly climate of the place; and in the following year they were removed to another settlement of their countrymen at Rángámátí, a healthier locality farther south, with whom they amalgamated and formed one colony. The settlers, however, proved unfit for colonization, and the little community was finally broken up in 1877.

Khagrapárá.—Village in the north of Darrang District, Assam; lying near the foot of the Bhután Hills. An annual fair is held here, which is largely attended by people from considerable distances. In 1881–82, the Bhutiás are estimated to have sold goods to the value of £3656, chiefly salt, blankets, ponies, gold, and a spice resembling coriander, called *jabrang*, in exchange for which they purchased rice, silk and cotton cloth, dried fish, and hardware.

Kháibar (*Khyber*).—A celebrated pass leading from Pesháwar District of the Punjab into Afghánistán; centre of pass, lat. 34° 6′ N., long. 71° 5′ E. The name is also applied to the range of hills in Yághistán, through which the pass runs. The Kháibar mountains form, indeed, the last spurs of the SUFED KOH, as that mighty range sinks down into the valley of the Kábul river. The elevation of the connecting ridge is 3400 feet; but it rises to 6800 feet in the Tátara peak. On either side of the ridge which connects the Kháibar mountains with the Sufed Koh rise two small streams—the one flowing north-west to the Kábul river, the other south-south-east towards Jamrúd. The beds of these streams form the Kháibar defile. On the north of this defile is the Kháibar range; on its south is another range, which divides the defile from the Bárá valley, and which is also a spur of the Sufed Koh. These two ranges respectively throw out their spurs south and north like two combs placed with their teeth inwards, the teeth being prevented from quite meeting by the streams above mentioned.

The Kháibar Pass forms the great northern military route from Afghánistán into India; as the KURAM and GUMAL PASSES form the intermediate military and trade routes, and the BOLAN PASS the great southern passage both for war and commerce. The Kháibar Pass commences near Jamrúd, to the west of Pesháwar, and twists through the hills for about 33 miles in a north-westerly direction, till it debouches at Dháka. The plains of Pesháwar District stretch rom its eastern mouth; those of Jalálábád from its western exit.

Beyond its eastern end is the remarkable collection of caves at Kadam; and beyond its western are many interesting remains of Buddhism and of ancient civilisation. The pass lies along the bed of a torrent, chiefly through slate rocks, and is subject to sudden floods. Burnes' camp had a narrow escape below the fort of Alí Masjid. The dangerous months for floods are July, August, December, and January. The gradient is generally easy, except at the Landí Khána Pass, but is covered with loose stones, which become larger as the head of the stream is reached. The following details are condensed from General MacGregor's official account.

Immediately on leaving Jamrúd, the defensible ground may be said to commence, as the spurs come almost up to that place in round bare knolls of low height, but very sufficient command of the road. Kadam, however, 3 miles from Jamrúd, is generally considered to be the actual eastern entrance. At this point the hills begin to close in, and 1000 yards farther the width of the pass is 450 feet; the bed is easy, level, and covered with small shingle,—the hills on the left are very steep; 500 yards farther on, this width gradually lessens to 370 feet, the hills on either side being sheer precipices. At 1200 yards farther the width is 190 feet, the hills being steep for 50 or 60 feet in height, then sloping back; 850 yards farther the width is 240 feet, the hills on the right being precipitous, and on the left rounded and practicable; at 1050 yards farther the width is 280 feet, the hills being very steep on both sides; 850 yards farther the width is 210 feet, the hills on the right being perpendicular, and on the left not so steep; 1050 yards farther the width is 70 feet, the hills being very precipitous on both sides; 500 yards farther the width is 230 feet, the hills on the left being precipitous, and on the right rounded and practicable; 2 miles farther the width is 250 feet, the hills on the right being perpendicular, and on the left practicable; 1050 yards farther the width is 65 feet, the hills on both sides being very steep, those on the left perpendicular; 1050 yards farther the width is 110 feet, the hills on both sides being comparatively easy and practicable; 880 yards farther the width is 210 feet, the hills on the left being steep, and on the right open and easy; 2 miles 220 yards farther the width is 200 feet, the hills on the left being steepish, and on the right open and comparatively easy.

At Alí Masjid, 1300 yards farther, the width is 40 feet, the hills being perpendicular and impracticable. Between Kadam and this point, Moorcroft says, the mountains on either hand are about 1300 feet high, slaty, and to all appearance inaccessible; 1450 yards farther the width is 270 feet, hills on the left precipitous, on right comparatively easy; 1 mile 1000 yards farther the width is 390 feet, the hills being very steep; $6\frac{1}{2}$ miles beyond this lies the Lálábeg valley, which averages $1\frac{1}{2}$ mile

broad; 880 yards farther the width is 10 feet or less, the hills being quite perpendicular; in 1600 yards farther the road goes over the LANDI KHANA PASS, the width being 140 feet, and the hills being very steep, especially on the left; $3\frac{1}{4}$ miles farther the width is 300 feet, the hills being steep on the left, but not so precipitous on the right; $2\frac{1}{4}$ miles farther the width is 200 feet, the hills being very steep on both sides; 3 miles farther is Dháka, where the defile opens. The total length of the defile, therefore, from Jamrúd to Dháka is about 33 miles.

The elevation in feet of various points of the pass is—Jamrúd, 1670; Alí Masjid, 2433; Landí Khána, 2488; Landí Kotal, 3373; Dháka, 1404. If the elevation of Jamrúd (2433) given by Mr. Scott of the Survey is right, all these figures would be increased by 763 feet. The ascent over the Landí Khána Pass is narrow, rugged, steep, and generally the most difficult part of the whole road. Guns could not be drawn here except by men, and then only after the improvement of the road; the descent is along a well-made road, and is not so difficult. Just beyond Alí Masjid the road passes over a bed of projecting and slippery rock, which makes this portion extremely difficult for laden animals. The Kháibar can be turned by the Tátara road, which enters the hills about 9 miles north of Jamrúd (another branch entering $2\frac{1}{2}$ miles nearer), and either joins the Kháibar road at Luadgai, or keeps the north of the range and goes to Dháka.

During the first Afghán war, the Kháibar was the scene of many skirmishes with the Afrídís, and of some disasters to our troops. Colonel Wade, with from 10,000 to 11,000 of all arms, including the Sikh contingent, moved from Jamrúd on the 22nd July 1839 to Gagrí; here he halted a day and entrenched his position; on the 24th July, he again marched to Lálá Chína; on the 15th, he moved to the attack of Alí Masjid, sending one column of 600 men and 2 guns, under Lieutenant Mackeson, to the right; and 11 companies of infantry, 1 6-pounder gun, and 1 howitzer to the left; while below a column was placed to watch the mouth of Shádi Bagádi gorge. Both columns drove the enemy before them, the right meeting with some opposition, and the left getting into a position to shell the fort. On the 26th all the enemy's outposts were driven in, and on the 27th they evacuated the fort. The enemy had 509 Jazáilchis, or musket men, and were supported by several hundred Kháibarís. The British loss was 22 killed and 158 wounded. After this there was no further opposition.

A strong post was left in Alí Masjid, and a detachment near Lálá Chína, to maintain communication with Pesháwar, and a post of irregulars under Lieutenant Mackeson was placed near Dháka. The post near Lálá Chína was attacked during the operations. It was garrisoned by Yusafzai auxiliaries, whose numbers had been thinned, and the

survivors were worn down by continued sickness, when the Kháibarís, estimated at 6000 strong, attacked their breastwork. They were long kept at bay, but the marauders were animated by the love of plunder, and persevered in their attacks. They were aware that the devoted garrison had recently received their arrears of pay, and that a sum of Rs. 12,000 was buried on the spot, which was an old Kháibarí haunt. Finally, they carried the weak field-work, and mercilessly put to the sword 400 of its defenders. They did not keep possession of it, but, after repeating their vain attempts on Alí Masjid and Captain Ferris' posts in the valley, retired to their mountains.

When Jalálábád was blockaded, it was proposed to send a force through the Kháibar to its relief, and as a preliminary measure, Lieutenant-Colonel Moseley was detached to occupy Alí Masjid with two regiments of Native Infantry. He marched on the night of the 15th January 1842, and reached the place with little opposition the next morning. Through some mismanagement, however, only a portion of the provisions requisite for the two regiments accompanied them. It became necessary, therefore, to forward the residue without delay; and to this end, and with the purpose of afterwards moving upon Jalálábád, Brigadier Wilde advanced from Jamrúd with the remaining two regiments (the 60th and 30 Native Infantry) and 4 Sikh guns. But the appearance of Colonel Moseley's detachment had alarmed the Afrídís, who now rose, and, closing the pass, prepared to resist Brigadier Wilde's entrance. The Brigadier, nevertheless, pushed onwards on the 19th January, and encountered the enemy at the mouth of the pass; but, owing to the uselessness of the Sikh guns, and the inadequacy of his force with so powerful a body of the enemy advantageously placed in his front, his attempt to reach Alí Masjid totally failed. The situation of Lieutenant-Colonel Moseley, shut up as he was in Alí Masjid, with scarcely any provisions, now became desperate. He was not long, however, in deciding upon the course which it became him to take under circumstances of so serious a nature. He cut his way back to Jamrúd; his reasons for doing so being, that he found that the remnant of his stores only amounted to 6 *maunds* of *atta* for the subsistence of 2500 men, who had already been five or six days on half-rations, and who had been exposed for eight days, without tents, to an inclement climate.

The next occasion on which the Kháibar Pass was used as a great military road was when General Pollock advanced on the 6th April 1842. On his return to India, the British army marched through the Kháibar in three divisions. The first, under General Pollock, passed through with no loss. The second, under General M'Caskill, was not equally fortunate; one brigade being overtaken by night, left two mountain-train guns with the rear-guard, which was suddenly attacked,

and the guns taken, though they were recovered next day. The rear-guard of General Nott's force was also attacked on the 5th and 6th November between Landí Khána and Lálábágh, and again on leaving Alí Masjid.

It was at Alí Masjid in the Kháibar that Sir Neville Chamberlain's friendly mission to the Amír Sher Alí Khán was stopped and repelled with threats. This was in 1878, when Lord Lytton, the Viceroy of India, had determined to make a final attempt to establish British influence in Afghánistán. On the repulse of General Sir Neville Chamberlain's mission, an *ultimatum* was handed to the Amír's general, Fáiz Muhammad, in Alí Masjid; and the day specified having passed without the return of an answer, Afghánistán was invaded by three British columns, one of which started from Jamrúd at the mouth of the Kháibar. The other columns started from Thal and Quetta. On the second day of the campaign the fortress of Alí Masjid, 9½ miles from Jamrúd, was brilliantly captured by the British troops, under Sir Samuel Browne. The successful passage of the Kháibar by Sir Samuel Browne's force, and the unopposed occupation, first of Dháka at the eastern mouth of the pass, and then of Jalálábád in the plains beyond, were immediately subsequent events. The treaty which closed the war in May 1879 left the Kháibar tribes for the future under British control.

Khair.—Western *tahsíl* of Alígarh District, North-Western Provinces; stretching inland from the east bank of the Jumna, and irrigated by distributaries from the Ganges Canal. It comprises the three *parganás* of Khair, Chandausí, and Tappal. Area, 406 square miles, of which 293 were cultivated at the time of the last land settlement in 1874, the proportion of cultivated to cultivable land being 84 per cent. Population (1872) 169,459; (1882) 160,264, showing a decrease of 9195 in nine years. Classified according to religion, there were in 1881—Hindus, 147,247; Muhammadans, 12,894; Jains, 120; 'others,' 3. Number of villages, 276, of which 171 had less than five hundred inhabitants. Land revenue, £40,105; total Government revenue, £44,115; rental paid by cultivators, £62,131. The *tahsíl* contains 1 criminal, but no civil court; with 4 police circles (*thánás*); a regular police force of 64, and a village watch or rural police of 354 men.

Khair.—Town in Alígarh District, North-Western Provinces, and head-quarters of Khair *tahsíl*. Situated on the road to the Jumna; distant from Alígarh town 14 miles north-west. *Tahsíli*, police station, post-office, school, *munsifi*. Population (1881) 4455. For police and conservancy purposes, a small house-tax is levied. Local revenue in 1873, £96. During the Mutiny of 1857, the Chauháns occupied Khair, under Ráo Bhúpál Singh, who set himself up as Rájá. On the 1st of June, an expedition of the Agra volunteers, under Mr. Watson,

surrounded the town, and captured the rebel leader, who was hanged by order of a court-martial. Later in the month, the Chauháns called in the Játs, attacked the town, and plundered or destroyed the Government buildings and the houses of the wealthy Mahájans and Baniyás.

Khairábád.—*Parganá* in Sítápur *tahsíl*, Sítápur District, Oudh. Bounded on the north by Hargám *parganá;* on the east by the Gon river; and on the south and west by the Saráyan river, the two streams meeting at the southern extremity of the *parganá*, which forms their *doáb*. Originally in the possession of the Pásís, who were ousted by the Bais and Káyasths; but their descendants still hold many villages. Constituted a *parganá* by Todar Mall in the reign of Akbar. Soil fertile; country well wooded and watered; the Gon and the Saráyan afford water communication, except during the dry months. Area, 128 square miles, or 81,919 acres (excluding Sítápur cantonment); of which 71 square miles, or 45,708 acres, are cultivated, and 30 square miles, or 20,628 acres, are cultivable. Incidence of Government land revenue, 3s. 1⅛d. per acre of cultivated area, 2s. 2¼d. per acre of assessed area, and 1s. 8½d. per acre of total area. Rents are paid almost entirely in kind. Population (1869) 63,728; (1882) 57,411, namely, males 29,348, and females 28,063. The town of KHAIRABAD and the cantonment of SITAPUR are situated in this *parganá*. Large markets are held in three other villages. Six numerously attended Hindu fairs and three Musalmán festivals are held, at all of which a brisk trade is carried on. Three military camping stations, at Saráyan on the Biswán road, at Thompsonganj, and at Jalálpur on the Lucknow road.

Khairábád.—Chief town of Sítápur District, Oudh; situated 5 miles south-east of Sítápur, the civil station and cantonment of the District, in lat. 27° 31′ 30″ N., and long. 80° 47′ 35″ E. The town is said to have been founded by one Khaira, a Pásí, in the first year of the 11th century, and to have been subsequently taken possession of by a Káyasth family. In after years, many rent-free grants of portions of its site were made to Musalmáns, who came in great numbers in the reigns of Bábar and Akbar, but these grants were all resumed by the Nawáb of Oudh about 1810. Khairábád is the seventh largest town in Oudh. It contained a population in 1869 of 15,677 persons, but had decreased by 1881 to 14,217. Classified according to religion, the population in the latter year consisted of—Muhammadans, 7653; Hindus, 6551; Jains, 9; and Christians, 4. Municipal income in 1876-77, £401; in 1882-83, £471, of which £397 was derived from octroi; average rate of taxation, 6⅝d. per head. The town contains 40 mosques and 30 Hindu temples, besides a handsome set of holy Muhammadan buildings, erected about fifty years ago.

These consist of a Kadam Rásul ('prophet's footprint'), an Imámbára, and mosques with intervening courtyards, all surrounded by a wall. The public buildings consist of a police station, school, post-office, *saráis*, etc. Four *bázárs* and markets are held daily. Large fair held in January, lasting ten days, and attended by an average of 60,000 persons. A second fair is held at the *Dasahára* festival, attended by about 15,000 persons. Annual value of *bázár* sales, about £34,000.

Khairábád.—River in Bákarganj District, Bengal. An offshoot of the Barisál river at Ráníhát, flowing east of Bákarganj town to Angariáhát, a distance of 22 miles; whence it continues as the Nahália river, running a tortuous course, sometimes south-east and sometimes south-west, for 14 miles, as far as Patuákhálí; after which it is called the Guláchipá or Rabnábád river, and flows a southerly course for 20 miles till it falls into the Bay of Bengal, just north of the Rabnábád islands. A branch of this river, called in different parts of its course the Patuákhálí, Beghái, and Buriswar, falls into the sea under the latter name.

Khairágarh.—South-western *tahsíl* of Agra District, North-Western Provinces; consisting of a spur of British territory, almost surrounded by the Native States of Bhartpur (Bhurtpore) and Dholpur, and largely intersected by wild ravines. The *tahsíl* is divided by the Utanghan river into two portions, each varying greatly in physical features. The northern tract is of the same character as the neighbouring lands of Fatehpur Sikri and Fatehábád, having an alluvial soil. In the south-west portion of the *tahsíl*, a range of the Vindhya hills separates it from Bhartpur territory. There are also a number of isolated hills of red sandstone, which is quarried in considerable quantities. Some of the larger hills are wooded, and supply materials for charcoal, as well as scanty grazing for cattle. The Sindhia State Railway passes through the eastern half of the *tahsíl*, which is also intersected by the Agra and Bombay road, as well as by five unmetalled roads which meet at Khairágarh village. Area of the *tahsíl*, 308·9 square miles, of which 192·9 square miles are cultivated, 77 square miles cultivable, and the remaining 39 square miles uncultivable waste. Land revenue (1881–82), £28,485; total Government revenue, £31,988; rental paid by cultivators, £51,703. Total population (1881) 118,134, namely, males 64,155, and females 53,979, giving an average density of 382 persons per square mile. Classified according to religion, there were—Hindus, 110,291; Muhammadans, 7051; Jains, 784; Christians, 6; and 'others,' 2. Total number of villages, 156, of which 82 contained less than five hundred, and none upwards of five thousand inhabitants. The *tahsíl* contains 1 criminal court, with 5 police stations; strength of regular police, 69 men; village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 407.

Khairágarh.—Village in Agra District, North-Western Provinces, and head-quarters of Khairágarh *tahsíl*; situated 18 miles south-west of Agra city, on the left or north bank of the Utanghan river, in lat. 27° 1′ 28″ N., and long. 77° 53′ 50″ E. Population (1881) 1261. Besides being the head-quarters of the *tahsíl*, the village has a first-class police station, imperial post-office, and Anglo-vernacular school.

Khairágarh.—Native State attached to Ráipur District, Central Provinces, and the most important of the Chhatísgarh Feudatory States, lying in the richest part of the Chhatísgarh plain. Area, 940 square miles; number of towns and villages, 512; houses, 30,392. Population (1881) 166,138, namely, males 82,677, and females 83,461; average density, 177 persons per square mile.

The ruling family, which is Ráj-Gond, and descended from the royal family of Garhá Mandlá, originally held only the small forest tract known as Kholwá, below the Sáletekrí range; but they obtained extensive grants in 1818, both from the Mandlá princes and from the Maráthá rulers of Nágpur. The last chief, Lál Fateh Singh, was deposed, and died in 1874. From 1874 till February 1883, the State was under direct British management, when it was made over to its present chief, Lál Umras Singh, in public *darbár*. During the year 1876-77, the income amounted to £12,259, of which £11,261 was derived from land revenue, according to a summary settlement concluded in 1874; the expenditure amounted to £9433, of which £3149 was devoted to the chief's family. In 1882-83, the State revenue was £13,963. The tribute payable to the British Government is fixed at £4700.

Cotton, wheat, and gram constitute the chief products; iron-ore is also found in parts. Two of the principal passes through the Sáletekrí hills between Chhatísgarh and Nágpur lie in Khairágarh; but a different line has been adopted for the Great Eastern Road. All the roads leading to the great grain mart of DONGARGARH, one of the principal stations on the Nágpur-Chhatísgarh railway, can at small cost be made good cold-weather routes. A fair-weather road from Dongargarh to Borla in Biláspur District, passing through Khairágarh, Chhuikhádan, and Kawardhá States, is (1883) about to be constructed. Dispensaries have been opened at Khairágarh and Dongargarh, and various public buildings, court-houses, jail, etc., have recently been built.

Khairágarh.—Chief town of Khairágarh Feudatory State, attached to Ráipur District, Central Provinces; situated 45 miles north-west of Ráipur town, at the junction of the Am and the Pipária rivers, in lat. 21° 25′ 30″ N., long. 81° 2′ E. Population (1881) 2887, namely, Hindus, 2600; Muhammadans, 176; Kabírpanthís, 78; Satnámís, 2; Jains, 4; aboriginal religions, 27.

Khairi.—Small estate in Bhandárá District, Central Provinces; 8 miles north of Sákoli, on the Great Eastern Road, comprising 4 villages, on an area of 14 square miles, of which 2 square miles are cultivated. The forests yield abundance of inferior timber. The chief is a Máná, and the population (633 in 1881) chiefly Gonds.

Khairigarh.—*Parganá* in Nighásan *tahsíl*, Kheri District, Oudh; situated between the Mohan and Sarju rivers, which border it on the north and south; bounded on the east by the Kauriála river, and on the west by Nepál State. The largest *parganá* in the District, being 47 miles from east to west and 12 from north to south. Area, 425 square miles, of which 263 miles are covered with State forests. Population (1869) 33,046; (1881) 39,444, namely, males 21,378, and females 18,066. Hindus numbered 34,903, and Muhammadans, 4541. Ahírs form the principal Hindu caste. Bráhmans are very few in number. Crops, principally rice and barley. The only landed proprietor in the *parganá* is the Rájá of Khairigarh, who owns 67 out of the 70 villages, the remaining 3 being the property of Government. The Government land revenue, which about 1875 was returned at £4963, had fallen by 1882–83 to £2343. The *parganá* is said to derive its name from the *khair* jungle, found here in great quantities.

The early history of the *parganá* is lost in obscurity. It has been for many centuries the huge forest which it now appears. In the reign of Firoz-ud-dín Tughlak, 1351–1388 A.D., it is related that the Emperor established a chain of forts along the north bank of the river Sarju, to repel marauding expeditions on the part of the mountaineers of Dhoti and Garhwál. Tradition states that the Emperor, with his son, ascended the tallest tower of the great Khairigarh fort. He cast his eyes over the boundless sea of jungle, in which no house roof, no temple spire, no smoke, nor any other sign of human habitation appeared, and was so appalled by the vast solitude, that he for ever abandoned the place at which he had spent two years in building and hunting. The fort was abandoned for centuries. Khairigarh first reappears in deeds granted to the *kanúngo* family, which held office both in Khairigarh and Kheri. A deed signed by Akbar (1556–1605) recites that Ahbaran, an Ahír of Khairigarh, had usurped dominion, and was oppressing the people; and it directs the destruction of this chieftain, whose head-quarters were at Kundanpur, near Khairigarh. The landholders of the *parganá* at that time were Báchhils, Bisens, Bais, and Kurmís. The Báchhils were succeeded by the Rájpásís, and these latter, in their turn, were ousted by the Loháni Banjáras in the reign of Jahángír. Ráo Rám Singh was the Banjára chief at the beginning of the present century. He was a turbulent man, and his exactions led to a rebellion on the part of his own people, and his

defeat in 1800. In the following year, Khairigarh came into the hands of the British, being part of the territories ceded by the Nawáb Wazír. It remained in their possession till 1816, when it was handed over to Oudh in exchange for a part of Jaunpur. In 1809, the English sent a force to punish the Rájá for his cruelty and exactions. He was taken prisoner and carried to Bareilly, where he died. His successor, in 1830, was ousted by the Surajbans Kshattriyas, who had an ancient claim to the land, and to which tribe the present Rájá belongs. Khairigarh finally came into British possession on the annexation of Oudh.

Khairigarh.—Chief village in Khairigarh *parganá*, Kheri District, Oudh; situated on the left bank of the Suheli river, 110 miles north of Lucknow. Lat. 28° 20′ 35″ N., long. 80° 52′ 55″ E. Population (1869) 1135; (1881) 1278. Built by Alá-ud-dín Tughlak, in order to check the depredations of mountaineers from Nepál and Kumáun. Tieffenthaler, describing its condition eighty years ago, states it to be a fortified place, worthy of note as well on account of its excellent construction as of its size, being 4 or 5 miles in circuit. The defences are built of huge blocks of stone below, and of bricks of unusual size above; but it now lies waste, and the site is infested with tigers and other wild beasts. The town is 2 miles north-east of the great fort, the intervening space being overgrown with trees and grassy jungle.

Khairi-Murat.—Mountain range in Ráwal Pindi District, Punjab; midway between the Sohán river and the Chitta Pahár. Rises about 30 miles from the Indus, and runs eastward for some 24 miles, a dreary ridge of barren limestone and sandstone rock. Lat. 33° 28′ N., long. 72° 49′ 30″ E. North of the range lies a plateau intersected by ravines; while southward a waste of gorges and hillocks extends in a belt for a distance of 5 miles, till it dips into the fertile valley of the Sohán, one of the richest tracts in Ráwal Pindi District. The Khairi-Murat was formerly covered with jungle, but is now completely destitute of vegetation, except where the hill has been formed into a reserved forest, and closed to grazing. In these parts the trees are rapidly springing up again.

Khairpur.—Native State in Upper Sind, also known as the territories of the Mír Alí Murád Khán Talpur; lying between 26° 10′ and 27° 46′ N. lat., and between 68° 14′ and 70° 13′ E. long. Bounded on the north by Shikárpur District; on the east by Jaisalmer (Jeysulmere) State; on the south by Haidarábád (Hyderábád) District; and on the west by the river Indus. Its greatest length from east to west calculated at 120 miles, and its breadth from north to south at 70 miles; area, 6109 square miles. Population (1881) 129,153 persons.

Physical Aspects.—Like other parts of Sind, Khairpur consists of a great alluvial plain, the part bordering directly upon the Indus being very rich and fertile, though much of it is converted into *moháris*, or hunting-grounds. With the exception of the fertile strip watered by the Indus and the Eastern Nára (a canal which follows an old bed of the Indus), the remainder or three-fourths of the whole area is a continuous series of sandhill ridges covered with a stunted brushwood, where cultivation is altogether impossible. The country generally is exceedingly arid, sterile, and desolate in aspect. In the northern portion of the State is a small ridge of limestone hills, being a continuation of the low range known as the Ghar, which runs southward from Rohri for a distance of about 40 miles. On the top of the range are found oyster, cockle, and numerous other kinds of marine shells. On a western outlying spur of this ridge is situated the fort of DIJI. About 150,000 acres of land in all are under cultivation.

Khairpur is watered by five canals, drawn off from the Indus river, as well as by the Eastern Nára. The largest and most important of these canals is the Mírwah; and it is upon the land watered by this stream and its branches that much of the indigo grown in the State is produced. There are several cuts from the Mírwah canal, which extend to the valleys near the sandhills, where the soil is apparently fertile, and largely cultivated on the occurrence of a good rainfall. No separate canal department exists under the Mír's rule; but when the clearing out of silt becomes necessary, it is generally done by the cultivators themselves, who receive for this work about a pound of flour per diem. The Eastern Nára, which irrigates a portion of the State, is a petty stream, except during the rains, when it spreads out into wide sheets of water; in the dry season it is but a series of sluggish pools. The belt of land through which this stream flows is composed of rich alluvial soil, at present almost wholly uncultivated, but capable of producing excellent crops.

The soil of Khairpur, especially in the strip adjoining the Indus, is very productive. The tract lying between the Mírwah Canal and the Indus is the richest part of the State, but cultivation is even there by no means so extensive as it might be. In the desert portion of Khairpur are pits of *natron*—an impure sesqui-carbonate of soda, always containing sulphate of soda and chloride of sodium. It is generally obtained by means of evaporation. The *natron* pits are a source of income to the Mír, as many as a thousand camel-loads of this substance being annually exported to Northern and Central India, and also to the seaboard, each camel-load being taxed at 5s.

The wild animals found in Khairpur are the tiger, lynx, hyæna, wolf, jackal, fox, wild hog, deer, hare, and antelope. The birds and waterfowl are those common to Sind generally, such as bustard, wild geese,

snipe, partridges (both black and grey), and various kinds of wild duck (which arrive in the cold season). The reptiles are also the same as those common to the Province, and snakes abound as in other parts of Sind. The domestic animals comprise the camel, horse, buffalo, bullock, sheep, goat, mule, and donkey.

History.—The present chief of Khairpur belongs to a Baluch family called Talpur; and, previous to the accession of this family, on the fall of the Kalhorá dynasty of Sind in 1783, the history of Khairpur belongs to the general history of Sind. In that year Mír Fateh Alí Khán Talpur established himself as *Rais* or ruler of Sind; and subsequently his nephew Mír Sohráb Khán Talpur, with two sons, named Mír Rustam and Alí Murád, founded the Khairpur branch of the Talpur rulers of Sind. The dominions of Mír Sohráb Khán were at first confined to the town of Khairpur and a small adjacent tract of country; but by conquest and intrigue he managed to enlarge them, until they extended to Sabzalkot and Kashmor on the north, to the Jaisalmer Desert on the east, and to the borders of Kachchh Gandáva on the west. About the year 1813, during the troubles in Kábul incidental to the establishment of the Bárakzai dynasty, the Mírs were able to refuse the further payment of the tribute which up to that date had been somewhat irregularly paid to the rulers of Afghánistán. Two years earlier than this, in 1811, Mír Sohráb had abdicated in favour of his son Mír Rustam. But he appears to have endeavoured to modify this arrangement subsequently; and ultimately the jealousy between the two brothers, Mír Rustam and Alí Murád, was one of the factors in the crisis that called in the intervention of the British power.

In 1832, the individuality of the Khairpur State, as separate from the other Talpur Mírs in Sind, was recognised by the Government in a treaty, under which the use of the river Indus and the roads of Sind were secured to the British. When the first Kábul expedition was decided on, the Sind Mírs were required to assist the passage of the British through their territories, and allow of the occupation of Shikárpur; most of the princes showed great disinclination to comply with these demands. But in Khairpur, Alí Murád, who gradually succeeded in establishing his hold on the *raisat*, or chiefship, cordially supported the British policy; and the result was that, after the battles of Miáni (Meeanee) and Daba had put the whole of Sind at the disposal of the British Government, Khairpur was the only State in that Province that was allowed to retain its political existence under the protection of the paramount power. In 1866, a *sanad* was granted to the present Chief, under which the British Government promised to recognise any succession to the Chiefship that might be in accordance with Muhammadan law. The present ruler of Khairpur, His Highness Mír Alí Murád Khán, mentioned above as the youngest son of Mír

Sohráb Khán Talpur, was born in the year 1815. He is entitled to a salute of 15 guns.

Population.—The population of Khairpur, according to the Census of 1872, was returned at 130,350 persons, or 21 persons to each square mile. The Census taken on February 17, 1881, returned the population at 129,153, there being in the intervening period of nine years a hardly appreciable decrease of 1197. Of the total, 70,746 were males, and 58,407 females, the whole inhabiting 25,720 houses. The density of population remains at 21 persons to the square mile as in 1872; houses per square mile, 4·2; persons per house, 5. In point of religion, Hindus numbered 26,727, or 20·7 per cent. of the whole population; Muhammadans, who are in a great majority, 102,426, or 79·3 per cent. Among the Hindus were 213 Bráhmans, 7 Rájputs, 25,415 Lohánas (Government servants and the shopkeeping classes), and 'unspecified,' 1092. The Muhammadans include 12,276 Baluchís; 690 Patháns; 2297 Sayyids; 1466 Shaikhs; Sindhís, 77,524; 'unspecified,' 8173. The Muhammadans mostly belong to the Rájur tribe, which is again subdivided into numerous families. The Hindu inhabitants are principally Soda Thákurs, or Rájputs, who inhabit the extreme eastern part of the State. They are a well-built and sturdy race, nomadic in their habits, and fond of a life of freedom. Their only wealth consists in their herds of camels, oxen, sheep, and goats. Their chief food is butter-milk or camel's milk, and the coarsest grain. Sindhí, Persian, and Baluchí are the languages chiefly spoken.

The Census divides the male population into the following six main groups as regards occupation:—(1) Professional class, including State officials of every kind and the learned professions, 2025; (2) domestic servants, inn and lodging-house keepers, 1191; (3) commercial class, including bankers, merchants, carriers, etc., 456; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, including shepherds, 28,644; (5) industrial class, including all manufacturers and artisans, 9407; and (6) indefinite and non-productive classes, comprising general labourers, male children, and 'unspecified,' 29,023.

Trade and Manufactures, etc.—The value of the articles annually exported from Khairpur to British Sind and the Native State of Jaisalmer has been approximately estimated at about 5¼ *lákhs* of rupees (£52,500), and that of the imported articles at somewhat more than 2½ *lákhs* (£25,000). The principal exports are indigo, wool, cotton, grain, tobacco, twine, and skins. The imports are rice, wheat, barley, sugar, and piece-goods. The chief manufactures are cotton fabrics, such as woven sheets and coloured cloth; silk fabrics, silver-ware of different kinds, lacquered wood-work, boots, shoes, horse trappings, swords, matchlocks, and earthen pottery for home consumption. A

small quantity of salt and saltpetre is also manufactured. The lines of communication in the State are very few. Excepting the main trunk road from Haidarábád to Rohri, which passes through Khairpur at a distance of about 20 miles from the Indus, and another road connecting the same towns by a somewhat more direct route, there are no made roads in Mír Alí Murád's territory. The telegraph runs along the trunk road. The ferries, chiefly on the Indus, are six in number, and have each one boat attached to them. They are—(1) Bindu, (2) Alípur, (3) Saga, (4) Rafidír, (5) Agro, (6) Núrpur.

Agriculture.—The principal grains grown in the State are *joár* (Sorghum vulgare), *bájra* (Pennisetum typhoideum), wheat, gram, various pulses, and cotton. Indigo is also largely cultivated. The fruit-trees are the mango (Mangifera indica), mulberry, apple, pomegranate, date, and others. The forest-trees are the *pipal* (Ficus religiosa), *ním* (Melia Azadirachta indica), *ber* (Zizyphus jujuba), *siras* (Dalbergia latifolia), *tali* (Dalbergia sissoo) *bahan* (Populus euphratica), and *kandi* (Prosopis spicigera). The bush jungle consists principally of tamarisk; reed grasses are abundant. There is good timber in the game preserves bordering on the Indus. The *kandi* tree grows luxuriantly in the valleys.

Administration.—The rule of the Mír is a patriarchal system of government like that of the chief of a Scottish highland clan. The village system has died out in Khairpur as in the rest of Sind. The gross revenue of Khairpur, collected not in cash but in kind, the Mír receiving one-third of the produce, amounted in 1882–83 to £57,250. From this about £17,000 must be deducted for *jágírs* or alienations. The *jágírdárs* are mostly the Mír's own sons and the ladies of his family. The British Collector at Shikárpur acts as a Political Agent in regard to the State.

There are only two courts of justice in the State; one permanent, and held at the town of Khairpur; the other of an itinerant nature, always accompanying the Mír wherever he may be. A Hindu officer presides over the former, and two Muhammadan Maulvís over the latter. All sentences passed by these courts require the Mír's confirmation before they can be carried out. The punishments resorted to in the case of convicted persons are generally fine and flogging, with or without imprisonment. The punishment of death is seldom inflicted, but the Mír has the power of life and death throughout his dominions. In civil cases the plaintiff is required to give to the State one-fourth of his claim as costs and expenses; and it is, no doubt, on this account that but few suits are brought in the Mír's courts, the litigating parties preferring to have them settled by means of *pancháyats*, or friendly arbitration. Registration is done by *kázis* or subordinate officers, and the documents are attested by the *kárdárs* and *zamíndárs*. In 1882–83,

424 offences were reported to the police, mostly cattle-thefts. The daily jail average was 101 prisoners. The military force consists of about 500 men fairly mounted, and armed with swords and matchlocks. Repairs to canals in 1882 cost £1720. A preventive service to check opium-smuggling from Jaisalmer State is being organized. Number of schools in the State, 6; number of scholars, 240. Persian is specially attended to by Múllas, who, for the instruction they afford, receive 1 pice ($\frac{1}{3}$d.) weekly from the parents of each child.

Climate, Medical Aspects, etc.—The climate of Khairpur is represented to be agreeable during about four months of the year, but fiercely hot during the remaining eight. The fall of rain is slight, but dust storms are frequent, and have the effect of cooling the atmosphere to some extent. The diseases common to the country are fevers, intermittent and remittent, ophthalmia, and several cutaneous affections. Organic affections of the liver are said to be rare. 2850 persons were vaccinated in 1882-83. In the same year there were 2 native physicians attached to the Mír's camp, while 3 more were resident in Khairpur town, to give advice and medicine to the inhabitants free of charge.

Khairpur.—Chief town of Khairpur State, Sind, Bombay Presidency; situated on the Mírwah Canal, about 15 miles east of the river Indus, and 17 miles south of Rohri. Lat. 27° 31′ 30″ N., long. 68° 48′ 30″ E. The town, which is irregularly built, consists of a collection of mud hovels, intermingled with a few houses of a better class. It is very filthy, and, owing to the excessive heat of the place, and the deleterious influence of the stagnant marshes around it, decidedly unhealthy. The palace, covered with gaudy lacquered tiles of various hues, is situate in the midst of the *bázár*, and presents but few points worthy of notice. Outside the town stand the tombs of two Muhammadan saints—Pír Ruhan Ziá-ud-dín and Háji Jafiar Sháhid. The population, consisting of Muhammadans and Hindus, the former of whom greatly predominate in number, is estimated by some at from 4000 to 5000 persons, but by others as high as 10,000; in 1875, it was returned at 7275. The population of Khairpur town is not returned separately in the Census Report of 1881.

During the flourishing period of the Talpur dynasty, Khairpur is said to have possessed not less than 15,000 inhabitants, but the place is now fast hastening to ruin and decay. The trade of Khairpur is principally in indigo, grain (*joár* and *bájra*), and oil-seeds, which form the chief articles of export; the imports being piece-goods, silk, cotton, wool, metals, etc. The manufactures comprise the weaving and dyeing of cloths of various kinds, goldsmith's work, and the making of fire-arms, swords, etc. On the present site of the town of Khairpur, which owes its rise to Mír Sohráb Khán Talpur, there stood, prior

to the year 1787, the village of Boira, and the *zamíndárí* or estate of the Phulpotras. It was selected as the residence of the chief Mírs of Northern Sind; and for some time during Talpur rule, a British Resident was stationed here, in terms of the treaty of 20th April 1838, concluded between the British Government and the Mírs of Sind.

Khairpur.—Town and municipality in Alípur *tahsíl*, Muzaffargarh District, Punjab; situated in lat. 29° 20′ N., long. 70° 51′ E., 6 miles south-west of Alípur, on a depressed site, below flood-level from the Chenáb, and therefore surrounded by an embankment, which has to be kept up at a considerable outlay. The town is compactly built, chiefly of brick, many of the houses being two and three storied. The *bázárs* are mostly paved with brick, but the streets are too narrow to admit of wheeled traffic. Population (1868) 2846; (1881) 2609; namely, Hindus, 1549, and Muhammadans, 1060; number of houses, 271. A third-class municipality, with an income in 1881–82 of £295; average incidence of taxation, 2s. 3⅛d. per head of the population. The inhabitants are enterprising traders, and their trade with Baluchistán, Sakkar (Sukkur), Múltán, and other places at a distance is larger than that of any other town in the District. The exports consist principally of wool, cotton, and grain; the imports of cloth and sundries. The town contains a primary school, and has a police outpost station.

Khairpur Dharki.—Town in Rohri Sub-division, Shikárpur District, Sind, Bombay Presidency; situated about 65 miles north-east of Rohri town. Lat. 28° 3′ N., long. 69° 44′ 30″ E. Head-quarters of a *tappadár*, with a *musafirkhána* (travellers' rest-house); vernacular school; *tháná* police force of 7 men; and cattle pound. Connected by road with the towns of Ubauro, Rawati, Mírpur, and Raharki. Population (1881) under 2000. The trade of Khairpur Dharki is principally in grain, sugar, molasses, oil, and cloth. The Lohárs are noted for their handiwork in metal pots, pipe bowls, knives, razors, etc. The Dhars, who were once the principal landowners in Ubauro *táluk*, are thus referred to by Lieutenant Lester, a former Deputy Collector, in his Report (1852) on the Districts on the left bank of the Indus:—

'The Dhars are a race of Musalmáns, originally Hindus, who emigrated from their native country of Tonk Jodah, near Delhi, under their chief, one Jodh Dhar, and settled in Ubauro. This migration took place about A.H. 551 (A.D. 1150). The Dhars took Ubauro by force of arms from the Odhánas, a Muhammadan race, who formerly possessed it, and Jodh Dhar became the acknowledged ruler of Ubauro. Alím Khán, the twelfth chief from Jodh Dhar, was the first who surrendered his independence. He became subject to the kings of Delhi about A.D. 1634; and one of the first *sanads* is dated A.H. 1052 (A.D. 1626), by which one-half of the grain produce is allowed to the

Dhar chief, and the other half taken by the Delhi Government. About A.D. 1795, the Talpur chiefs, Mírs Sohráb and Rustam, wrested from the chief of Ubauro some of the west and south-west parts of that *parganá* near Sírhad, and called this acquired territory "Náo Khálsá." The Dhars were, however, allowed the *zamíndárí* of these lands. In 1817, the Talpurs took Sabzalkot, two-thirds of which were appropriated to the Haidarábád Mírs, and one-third to Mír Rustam. The Talpurs continued to encroach by degrees on the possessions of the Dhars in Ubauro, until one-half only remained in the possession of the latter. At length, on the death of Bhambú Khán, his son, Abúl Khair, was only allowed an eighth share of the revenue, besides *zamíndárí*.'

The town of Khairpur Dharki is comparatively modern, having been founded about 1787 by the grandfather of Jám Abúl Khair Dhar, the present head of the Dhar tribe. The Khairpur station (11 miles south-west of the Reti station) on the Sind, Punjab, and Delhi Railway is near the town.

Khairpur Juso.—Village in Lárkhána Sub-division, Shikárpur District, Sind, Bombay Presidency; situated about 10 miles south-west of Lárkhána town. Lat. 27° 31′ N., long. 68° 5′ E. Population in 1881 under 2000. Head-quarters of a *tappadár;* police station, and *musafirkhána* (travellers' rest-house). No manufactures of any importance; local trade in *joár* and rice. A *jágír* village, held by Mír Bijar Khán Talpur, a lineal descendant of the Mír Bijar, who was murdered by the Kalhorá prince Abdúl Nabi Khán. The *jágírdár* resides in a small fort in the village.

Khairpur Natheshah.—Municipal village in Kakar *táluk*, Mehar Sub-division, Shikárpur District, Sind, Bombay Presidency; situated 8 miles south of Mehar town. Lat. 27° 5′ N., long. 67° 46′ 30″ E. Population (1881) 1767. Municipal revenue (1881–82), £211; expenditure, £104. Police station, *mukhtiyárkár's* court, court-house, Government school, and cattle pound. A *jágír* village, in the possession of Mír Muhammad Khán Talpur.

Khajaulí.—Village and head-quarters of a police circle (*thána*) in Darbhangah District, Bengal; situated on the river Dhaurí about 12 miles north-east of Madhubaní, on the old road from Jainagar to Mírzápur. Lat. 26° 26′ 30″ N., long. 85° 56′ 51″ E. Population (1881) 907. Small bi-weekly market for the sale of grain and cloth.

Khajri.—Small *zamíndárí* estate in Sakoli *tahsíl*, Bhandárá District, Central Provinces; 6 miles north of Arjuni, on the Great Eastern Road; comprising 2 villages, with an area of 7 square miles, of which 3 square miles are cultivated. Lat. 21° 8′ 30″ N., long. 80° 10′ E. The chief is a Halbá, and the population (1502 in 1881) consists of Halbás and Gonds.

Khajuha.—Town in Korá *tahsíl*, Fatehpur District, North-Western

Provinces. Lat. 26° 3′ 10″ N., long. 80° 33′ 50″ E. It lies on the old Mughal road from Korá to Fatehpur, 21 miles from the latter town, and formerly possessed considerable commercial importance. Chiefly noted at present for its manufacture of brass and copper wares, especially drinking and cooking vessels. Population (1881) 3492, namely, males 1682, and females 1810; prevailing caste, Bráhmans. For police and conservancy purposes, a house-tax is levied, amounting in 1881–82 to £105. The town retains some architectural remains of ancient grandeur, including the Bágh Badsháhi, a large enclosed garden with a *báradári* at the eastern end, and a considerable masonry tank; the gateway and walls of the handsome old *sarái*, through which ran the Mughal road to Agra and Etáwah; and a fine Hindu temple, dedicated to Siva, with a tank known as the Randon-ka-taláo. A large religious fair is held here in October. Bi-weekly market, school, post-office, and police station.

Khajurá.—Village in Jessor District, Bengal; situated on the Chitrá river 8 miles north of Jessor town. Lat. 23° 17′ N., long. 89° 17′ E. One of the principal seats of date-sugar manufacture in the District, the village taking its name from the date-tree (*khajur*).

Khajurahra.—Town in Hardoi District, Oudh; 6 miles from Hardoi town. Population (1869) 3305; (1881) 4028, chiefly Chamár Gaurs, who have held the village since one of their ancestors drove out the Thatheras. Petty bi-weekly market.

Khajuráhu.—Ancient and decayed town in Chhatarpur State, Bundelkhand, North-Western Provinces; famous for its magnificent architectural remains. Population about 900. Situated at the south-east corner of the Khajur Ságar, or Ninora Tál Lake, 34 miles south of Mahoba and 25 miles east of Chhatarpur town, on the Ságar (Saugor) and Hamírpur road.

Formerly the capital of the old Province of Jajhoti, which closely corresponded with the later Bundelkhand. Hiuen Tsiang mentions it in the 7th century; and General Cunningham attributes to the same date a single pillared temple called Ganthai, and a high mound which probably conceals the ruins of a Buddhist monastery. Numerous inscriptions of the Chandel kings have been discovered at various places in the neighbourhood. Upwards of twenty temples still stand in the town, and the ruins of at least as many more bear witness to its former greatness. On one alone, General Cunningham counted over eight hundred statues of half life-size, and eight sculptured elephants of like proportions. The inner shrine of this edifice constituted in itself a splendid temple, and was crowded with figures. Captain Burt noticed seven large temples of exquisite carving, whose mechanical construction adapted them to last for almost indefinite periods. Most or all of these noble buildings must be referred to the

Chandel dynasty, who ruled at Khajuráhu, apparently from A.D. 841 to 1157. The modern village contains only about 160 houses.

Khajúri.—Guaranteed chiefship of Central India.—*See* KAJURI.

Khakereru. — South-eastern *tahsíl* of Fatehpur District, North-Western Provinces, lying along the north bank of the Jumna river, and comprising the *parganás* of Dháta and Ekdala. Area, 215·2 square miles, of which 130·2 square miles are cultivated, 34·6 square miles cultivable, and 50·4 square miles uncultivable waste. Population (1872) 87,153; (1881) 78,686, namely, males 39,284, and females 39,402, the decrease in the nine years being 8467, or 9·7 per cent. Classified according to religion, there were in 1881—Hindus, 68,865, and Muhammadans, 9821. Number of villages, 169, of which 120 contained less than five hundred, and none over five thousand inhabitants. Government land revenue (1881), £17,847, or, including local rates and cesses, £21,028; rental paid by cultivators, including rates and cesses, £25,643. The *tahsíl* contained 2 criminal courts in 1884, with 3 *thánás* or police stations; strength of regular police, 34 men; village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 240.

Khakereru. — Village in Fatehpur District, North-Western Provinces; situated 29 miles from Fatehpur town, in lat. 25° 36′ 56″ N., and long. 81° 10′ 18″ E. Population (1881) 1152, chiefly Muhammadans. A considerable cotton trade is carried on. Ruined fort, police station, and post-office.

Khalári. — Village in the centre of the Khalári estate, Ráipur District, Central Provinces; 13 miles from Ráipur town. The seat of a revenue manager under the Maráthás. The four ancient temples built of uncemented stones, were raised, the legend says, by giants of old. At the top of a lofty eminence, crowned by huge granite boulders, stands a small *chabútra*, dedicated to Khalári Deví, beneath which is yearly held a religious fair at the *Chaitra Punava* festival, about the end of March, attended by 3000 persons.

Khalílábád.—South-eastern *tahsíl* of Basti District, North-Western Provinces, stretching northward from the bank of the Gogra (Ghagra). Population (1872) 307,717; (1881) 341,590, namely, males 171,626, and females 169,964; increase since 1872, 33,873, or 11 per cent. Classified according to religion, there were—Hindus, 282,352; Muhammadans, 59,236; 'others,' 2. Number of villages, 1363, of which 1227 contain less than five hundred inhabitants. Area, 546 square miles, or 349,746 acres, of which 226,265 acres are cultivated. Land revenue, £25,336; total Government revenue, £28,448; rental paid by cultivators, £72,953; incidence of Government revenue per acre, 1s. 7½d. The *tahsíl* contains 1 criminal court, with 5 police stations; a regular police force 59 strong, besides 383 village watchmen.

Khalílábád.—Village in Basti District, North-Western Provinces,

and head-quarters of Khalílábád *tahsíl*, situated on the metalled road from Gorakhpur to Faizábád, 22½ miles from Basti town. Except as the head-quarters of the *tahsíl*, it has no commercial importance beyond that of a market village, which trades in the immediate neighbourhood. It contains the usual sub-divisional courts and office, police station, and post-office.

Khaling Dwár.—Forest reserve in Darrang District, Assam, skirting the southern base of the Bhután Hills. Area, 6240 acres. The *mahál*, or fiscal division of the same name, in which the forest is situated, has an area of 194 square miles. Revenue (1881–82), £3219.

Khambhálá.—Petty State in the Gohelwar division of Káthiáwár, Gujarát, Bombay Presidency; consisting of 2 villages, with 2 separate shareholders. Area, 9 square miles. Population (1881) 890. Estimated revenue in 1881, £600; tribute of £40, 13s. is paid to the British Government, and £11, 16s. to the Nawáb of Junágarh. Khambhálá village is situated 17 miles north-west of the Dhása station on the Bhaunagar-Gondal Railway.

Khambháliá.—Town in Nawánagar State, Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 22° 12′ N., long. 69° 50′ E. Situated at the confluence of two small streams, the Teli and Ghi, flowing into the Saláya creek, about 10 miles east of the port of Saláya. Population (1872) 9067; (1881) 8576, namely, 4083 males and 4493 females. Hindus numbered 7025; Muhammadans, 1458; and Jains, 93. After Nawánagar, the town of most importance in the State; it was the residence of the Jám or chief until the death of the Emperor Aurangzeb. Khambháliá is an ancient town, and was formerly a possession of the Vádhels, from whom it was conquered by Jám Ráwal. It contains several old temples. The ironsmiths of the town are renowned for their skill, and the gunsmiths are capable of making breech-loading firearms. A tax is levied on all pilgrims passing through to DWARKA and Pindtárak. Pindtárak is a seaport under Khambháliá, and contains a celebrated shrine. It is said that the remains of several ancient temples, now covered by the sea, are visible at extremely low tides.

Khamblao.—Petty State in the Jháláwár division of Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency; consisting of 2 villages, with 3 separate shareholders. Area, 10 square miles. Population (1881) 1449. Estimated revenue in 1881, £457; tribute of £73 is payable to the British Government, and £13, 18s. to the Nawáb of Junágarh. Khamblao village is situated 7 miles east of the Limbdi station on the Bhaunagar-Gondal Railway.

Khámgáon.—*Táluk* of Akola District, Berár. Area, 441 square miles; contains 2 towns and 129 villages. Population (1867) 76,726; (1881) 96,179, namely, 50,558 males and 45,621 females, or 218

persons per square mile. Occupied houses, 17,482; unoccupied, 1777; towns and villages per square mile, ·3; houses per square mile, 43·6; persons per house, 5·5. Since 1872, the population of the *táluk* has increased by 19,453. Hindus number 88,759; Muhammadans, 6416; Jains, 801; Pársís, 49; Sikhs, 10; Christians, 137; Jews, 3; and aboriginal tribes, 4. Two towns in the *táluk* have a population between ten and fifteen thousand. The *táluk* contains 1 civil and 3 criminal courts; regular police, 99 men; police circles (*thánás*), 5; village watch, 154. Total revenue, £29,304, of which £23,408 is derived from land.

Khámgáon.—Town and municipality in Akola District, Berár. Lat. 20° 42′ 30″ N., long. 76° 37′ 30″ E. Population (1881) 12,390, namely, 6718 males and 5672 females. Of the total population, 9337 were returned as Hindus, 2603 as Muhammadans, 87 as Christians, 314 as Jains, and 41 as Pársís. A large cotton market and the emporium of the western Districts of the Province for opium. The grain trade of the town is also of considerable importance. Trade was first established about 1820, when a few dealers opened shops and began to deal in *ghí*, yarn, and a little cotton. A branch State railway of 8 miles, opened in 1870, connects Khámgáon with the Nágpur branch of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway at Jalamb station. It is only worked about seven months in the year, from December to July, during the cotton season; in the remaining months a contractor is allowed to conduct a lorry service for the convenience of travellers. It is also made use of to a considerable extent for grain and other goods, being able to compete successfully with ordinary carts for light loads. Latterly, considerable supplies of cotton have been diverted from Khámgáon to Shegáon, on the Nágpur branch of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway. In good seasons, above 100,000 bullock-loads of cotton are brought into Khámgáon. The weekly market is held on Thursdays, and during the busy season it is very largely attended. A branch of the Bombay Bank is open for business during six months.

The town is surrounded by low irregular hills. To the east is a large enclosed cotton market, having a small building in the centre used as an exchange room. There are upwards of 400 public and private wells; but the water in many of them has become contaminated, and a large tank is being constructed (1883) a mile and a half from the town, which it is calculated will afford an abundant supply of pure drinking water. The cost of this work is estimated at £18,000, half of which will be borne by the town. The public buildings are—the Assistant Commissioner's court-house; a *tahsíl;* a handsome *sarái;* travellers' bungalow; dispensary, telegraph and post offices; police stations; three school-houses; market shed. Of the private buildings, those erected by the European merchants are the most conspicuous; of these, the principal are the

French Press Company's, the New Berár Company's, the Khámgáon Pressing Company's, and the Mofussil Pressing Company's factories, which all possess steam machinery for full-pressing cotton. Several gardens in the town produce good oranges and vegetables. The Assistant Commissioner is judge of the Small-Cause Court, and has a Magistrate's full powers; a *tahsíldár* is also stationed at Khámgáon, and there is a sub-treasury. The imports into Khámgáon by rail in 1882-83 were valued at £316,081, and the exports at £673,148. Khámgáon is a municipality. In 1882–83, the municipal receipts were £1959; expenditure, £1742; incidence of taxation, 10¾d. per head of population within municipal limits. The daily average attendance at the dispensary was 48 in 1882.

Khamti Hills and Tribe.—A tract of country on the extreme eastern frontier of Assam, bordering on Lakhimpur District; occupied by the Khamtís, a hill tribe of Shan origin, akin to the Ahams. The seat of this tribe for centuries, and still inhabited by them, is the hilly country at the sources of the Nawadi river, known as Bar-khamtí, which was visited by Captain Wilcox in 1826. About the middle of last century, owing to internal dissensions, a colony of Khamtís migrated into Assam and established themselves in the division of Sadiyá. Their chief assumed the title of Sadiyá Khoá Gosáin, and was recognised by the British Government. On his death, the division of Sadiyá was taken under British administration, and difficulties arose with the Khamtís. In 1839 they cut off the outpost at Sadiyá, with its garrison of Sepoys and British commandant. This outbreak was sternly suppressed, and for several years the Khamtís led a hunted life. They have now resumed peaceful habits, and new colonies of their tribesmen from beyond the frontier have recently joined their settlements on the Tengápání and Noá Dihing rivers.

According to the Census of 1872, the total number of Khamtís in the settled portion of Lakhimpur District was 1562 souls. In 1881, the number was returned at 2883. The Khamtís are far in advance of all the neighbouring tribes in knowledge, arts, and civilisation. They are Buddhists, and in their own country have regular establishments of priests, well versed in the mysteries of that religion. The majority of the laity can read and write their own language, the boys of each village being (as in Burma) instructed by the village priest or *bápu.* The priests carve with great taste in wood, bone, or ivory. The chiefs pride themselves upon their manual dexterity in working in metals, and in ornamenting their shields of buffalo or rhinoceros hide with gold and lac. The women are skilled in embroidery. The dress of both men and women is marked by simplicity and neatness, and closely resembles that of the Burmese.

The principal settlement of the Khamtís in Assam proper is at Nárá-

yanpur, and the following description of the little colony is derived from the Assam Census Report of 1881 :—'The colony at Nárǻyanpur affords a good example of the mode of life characteristic of the Khamtís in Assam. The houses are built on platforms raised a few feet above the ground. The chief's house is a very large structure, 90 feet long by 30 feet broad, with the customary deep verandah or porch in front. Both men and women still retain their national costume, viz. a blue cotton jacket and kilt of chequered cloth for the former, and for the latter a blue cloth tied under the arms and reaching down nearly to the ankles, with a jacket above. Thus attired, the women may be seen of an evening bringing in large loads of firewood to the village. Both sexes have that robust and well-nourished appearance which distinguishes the non-Aryan races of Assam from the Hindu, whenever the former have not yet been persuaded to relinquish their freedom of eating and drinking. Though professedly followers of the Buddhist religion, the Khamtí laity eat all kinds of flesh (except beef), and drink strong liquors, but their priests are bound to abstinence. The Bápucháng, or monastery, is a large house outside their village, with only two residents, an old man who has lived there five-and-thirty years, and a young lad in training to be his successor. Their daily meal of rice and curried vegetables is supplied to them by the women of the village. The interior of the home is occupied by the carpets and beds of the priests, their domestic utensils, and a shrine with a red canopy, containing several images of Gautama, one of which is a clay model three feet high, and gilded, but of coarse workmanship, while another is a small image of white marble, and both are of the ordinary Buddhist type. The priests shave their heads, and wear a yellow dress.

'The doctrines of their religion are contained in sacred books written in the Khamtí character, but believed in some cases to be of the Pali language. They have not, however, any very definite notion of the religion they profess. They celebrate Thursday as the birthday of Gautama, or Kodoma, as they call him, but of the month and year of his birth they are ignorant. Their principal feasts are on the full moon of Asarh and Asin. The common people worship both Kodoma and the Hindu goddess Debi or Durga, but they are not the followers of any Gosain, and they employ in her service their own priests, instead of Bráhmans. The priests of Debi are called Pomu, while those of Kodoma are called Thomon (Assamese, *bápu*). Fowls, pigs, and buffaloes may be offered to Debi, but not a duck nor a goat; the service of Kodoma consists of floral offerings only. The worship of Durga, like the custom of burning their dead, is said by themselves to date from time immemorial, but it seems more probable that both practices have been adopted from the Hindus with whom this little colony has been thrown so intimately into contact. The Khamtís of

Sadiyá, in Colonel Dalton's time at least, used not only to bury their dead, but to preserve the graves with particular care. The chief man of the colony, who has adopted the Hindu name of Mani Ram, is the grandson of the old Sadiyá-khoa, whose office was taken away in 1839.'

Closely allied to the Khamtís, and, indeed, undistinguished from them in the Census, are four tribes, known as Kámjangs, Aitonias, Pání Noras, and Phakiáls. They are of somewhat inferior status, and are not allowed to take wives from the Khamtís, who, however, do not object to taking wives from them. A full account of the Khamtí tribe will be found in Colonel Dalton's *Ethnology of Bengal* (Calcutta, 1872), which has been quoted at length in the *Statistical Account of Assam*, vol. i. pp. 309–315 (Trübner & Co., London, 1879).

Khán (or *Kán*).—River of Málwá, Central India, rising in lat. 22° 36′ N., and long. 75° 55′ E., on the north side of the Vindhyan range, 8 miles east of Mau (Mhow). It flows in a northerly direction through a very fertile country until it is joined by the Saraswatí. It then takes a north-easterly direction for about 19 miles, and eventually falls into the Siprá, in lat. 23° 8′ N., long. 75° 50′ E. On the route from Mau to Ujjain, about 12 miles from the source of this river, there is a good ford.

Khánapur (*formerly known as Bidi*).—Sub-division of Belgáum District, Bombay Presidency. The most southern Sub-division of the District, known as Bidi till 1868–69, in which year the head-quarters was transferred from Bidi to Khánapur, and the name of the Sub-division changed. It contains 219 villages, with an area of 632 square miles; population (1872) 78,875, (1881) 79,264, or 125 persons per square mile; land revenue, £11,308. Of the 632 square miles, 626·7 had been surveyed in detail in 1882; 86 square miles were occupied by the lands of alienated villages. The remainder contains 156,669 acres of arable land, 1796 acres of uncultivable land, 1690 acres of grass, 174,534 acres of forests, and 12,664 acres of village sites, roads, rivers, and streams. Of the total, 36,400 acres are alienated lands in Government villages. The south and south-west of Khánapur is crowded with hills and dense forest, the people are few and unsettled, and, except in patches, tillage disappears. In the north-west the hills are especially lofty. In the centre, north-east, and east, the country is an open, well-tilled black soil plain, with many rich and populous villages. The climate is temperate and healthy during the hot months, feverish in the cold season, and sickly during the south-west rains. At Khánapur town, during the ten years ending in 1882, the rainfall averaged 63 inches. In 1881–82, of 94,727 acres held for tillage, 36,143 acres were fallow or under grass. Of the remaining 58,584 acres, 2706 were twice cropped. Of the 61,290 acres under tillage, grain occupied 52,231 acres; pulse, 5722; oil-seeds, 2184; fibres,

64; and miscellaneous crops, 999. About 20 miles of the West Deccan line of the Southern Maráthá Railway pass from north to south through the centre of the Sub-division, and about 21 miles of the Bellary-Marmagoa Railway along the southern boundary. In 1882, there were 15 schools in the Sub-division. [Khánapur Sub-division was formerly known as Bidi, and it has been described under that name in Volume II. of this edition of the *Imperial Gazetteer of India.* Since the short article BIDI was written, the further materials here given under Khánapur have been obtained.]

Khánapur.—Town in the Khánapur Sub-division of Belgáum District, Bombay Presidency. Situated in lat. 15° 37′ N., and long. 74° 34′ E., on the Malprabha river, about 16 miles south of Belgáum town. Head-quarters of the Sub-division, with a population of 3516 in 1872, and of 4016 in 1881. About 1720, Khánapur was a large entrepôt for Goa merchants with drugs, China goods, metals, and spices; they were met here by merchants from Hubli, Nargúnd, and Nawalgúnd with cloth, cotton, and saltpetre. This trade was destroyed about 1810 by the Kittur Desai, who removed it to Nandgar, seven miles south-east of Khánapur. Besides the revenue and police offices of the Sub-division, the town contains a school, post-office, rest-house, and Portuguese mission with a chapel. It is a station on the West Deccan line of the Southern Maráthá Railway.

Khánápur.—Sub-division of Sátára District, Bombay Presidency. Area, 531 square miles; contains 1 town and 90 villages. Population (1872) 76,783; (1881) 80,327, namely, 40,388 males and 39,939 females, occupying 11,245 houses. Hindus numbered 76,768; Muhammadans, 2989; and 'others,' 570. Since 1872 the population has increased by 3544. The Sub-division contains 1 civil and 2 criminal courts; police station (*thána*), 1; regular police, 44 men; village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 135. Land revenue, £16,693.

Khánbaila.—Town in Baháwalpur State, Punjab; a place of some importance, near the left bank of the Panjnad. Lat. 29° 4′ N., long. 70° 52′ E. The neighbouring country, fertilized by the inundations, produces abundant crops of grain.

Khandála.—Sanatarium in Poona (Púna) District, Bombay Presidency. Situated about 41 miles north-west of Poona city, on the Western Gháts; a favourite retreat of the inhabitants of Bombay during the summer months. There is a much admired waterfall, distant about half a mile, consisting in the rainy season of two cataracts, divided into an upper and a lower fall. The upper cataract has a sheer fall of 300 feet. The village of Khandála is extending since the opening of the south extension of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway, on which it is a station.

Khándánsa.—*Parganá* in Bíkápur *tahsíl*, Faizábád (Fyzábád)

District, Oudh; situated along the north bank of the Gúmtí. It contains 128 villages, covering 116 square miles, of which 65 are cultivated. Population (1869) 70,905; (1881) 67,712, namely, 62,542 Hindus and 5170 Muhammadans. Tradition states that about six hundred years ago, one Khánde, a Bhar chief, while on a pilgrimage to Ajodhya with his brothers, came to the neighbourhood of the present Khándánsa, and, finding it fertile and uninhabited, took possession of it and founded four villages—Khándánsa, Urwa, Bhakauli, and Dehli Girdhar—calling them after his own and his brothers' names. The *parganá* remained in the hands of the Bhars, until one Deo Rái, a Bisen of Manjhauli, happened to stop at Bhakauli on his way to bathe in the Ganges. During his stay, a quarrel arose between him and the Bhars, which ended in his putting them to the sword and taking possession of Bhakauli. Subsequently, his descendants made themselves masters of Urwa and Khándánsa, with other villages in neighbouring *parganás*, of which, after the lapse of thirty-five generations, they are still *zamíndárs*.

Khándauli (*Kanauli*). —Village in Bhágalpur District, Bengal; situated within a short distance of the Nepál frontier. Lat. 26° 26′ 58″ N., long. 86° 49′ 6″ E. Although the population is small (1955 in 1881), a large bi-weekly market is held here, which is one of the most flourishing seats of trade in the north of the District. Since the opening of the Tirhút State Railway to Darbhangah, Khándauli has much increased in commercial importance. It not only exports large quantities of rice, oil-seeds, *mahuá*, and other country produce, but imports salt, cloth, spices, etc. for distribution to smaller *bázárs*, and also for export to Nepál. Since 1875, Khándauli has been a station for the registration of traffic with Nepál.

Khándauli (or *Ihtimadpur*).—*Tahsíl* of Agra District, North-Western Provinces; lying in the Doáb portion of the District, along the north bank of the Jumna, and much intersected by ravines, which intersect the country for miles from the river bank. These ravines are distinctive features of the country, which exhibits three separate and strongly-marked divisions. First, the tract above the ravines, and removed from their influence, which forms the main area of the *tahsíl*, and the soil of which is, with rare exceptions, a rich and productive loam. Second, the ravines and adjacent parts, which are for the most part sterile; and third, the low-lying alluvial or *khádar* tract below the ravines, and along the river bank. The *khádar* is often a mere narrow belt of sand capable of supporting only melons. The ownership in this tract is, moreover, precarious, as it is liable to be cut away by constant changes in the river bed. The *tahsíl* is intersected by the East Indian Railway, with stations at Tundlá and Firozábád. Water communication is afforded by the Jumna, although river traffic has greatly diminished of late years. There are also several good lines

of road, metalled and unmetalled. Towns and markets are almost absent, and there is no manufacture or trade worth mention; what little there is consists chiefly of native-made indigo and country cloth.

Area of Khándauli *tahsíl*, 277·3 square miles; 201 square miles being cultivated, 31 square miles cultivable, and 45·3 square miles uncultivable. Population (1872) 151,454; (1881) 141,267, namely, males 77,137, and females 64,130, the decrease of population in nine years being 10,187. Classified according to religion, the population in 1881 consisted of—Hindus, 128,768; Muhammadans, 9554; Jains, 2639; and Christians, 306. Number of villages, 180, of which 90 contained less than five hundred inhabitants. Government land revenue (1881), £30,987; total Government revenue, including rates and cesses, £34,786; rental paid by cultivators, including cesses, £58,002. The *tahsíl* contains 2 criminal courts, with 4 police stations (*thánás*); strength of regular police, 56 men; village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 331.

Khandela.—Town in the Tourwáti district of Jaipur State, Rájputána. Population (1881) 7949, namely, 4138 males and 3811 females. Hindus numbered 6130; Muhammadans, 1701; and 'others,' 118.

Khándesh.—British District of the Bombay Presidency, lying between 20° 15′ and 22° 5′ N. lat., and between 73° 37′ and 76° 24′ E. long. Bounded on the north by the Sátpura hills and the Narbadá river; on the east by Berár, and the Nimár District of the Central Provinces; on the south by the Sátmála or Ajanta hills; on the south-west by the District of Násik; and on the west by Baroda territory and the petty State of Ságbára. The District is distributed into the following sixteen Sub-divisions, each of which see separately:—AMALNER, BHUSAWAL, CHALISGAON, CHOPDA, DHULIA, ERANDOL, JAMNER, NANDURBAR, NASIRABAD, PACHORA, PIMPALNER, SAVDA, SHAHADA, SHERPUR, TALODA, and VIRDEB. Area, 9944 square miles. Population (1881) 1,237,231. Chief town, DHULIA.

Physical Aspects.—Khándesh forms the most northerly section of the Deccan table-land. The chief natural feature is the river Tápti, which, entering at the south-east corner of the District, flows in a north-westerly direction, dividing it into two unequal parts. Of these, the larger lies towards the south, and is drained by the river Girna. Here is the long central plain of Khándesh,—an unbroken stretch of 150 miles, from Burhánpur to Nandurbár, comprising an extensive area of rich alluvial soil. In this tract large and prosperous towns and villages, surrounded by mango groves and gardens, are numerous. Except when blasted by the hot winds of the dry season, the fields are green with a harvest of various crops. Northwards beyond the alluvial plain the land rises towards the SATPURA HILLS. In the centre and east, save for some low ranges of barren hills, the country is level,

and has in general an arid, unfertile appearance. Towards the north and west, the plain rises into a difficult and rugged country, thickly wooded, and inhabited by tribes of Bhíls, who chiefly live on the wild fruits of the forest, and are supported by the profits of wood-cutting. The drainage of the District, drawn from an area of about 30,000 square miles, centres in the Tápti, which receives thirteen principal tributaries in its winding course of 450 miles through Khándesh. None of the rivers are navigable, and the Tápti flows in too deep a bed to be made use of for irrigation. The banks of the Tápti rise high and bare at distances of from 240 to 400 yards across. Except for two waterfalls, one above and the other below the Bhusáwal railway bridge, the river rolls over long sandy stretches for 40 miles, till it meets the waters of the Vághar. During the rainy season the Tápti is not fordable; the only bridge across it is the railway bridge at Bhusáwal.

Khándesh District on the whole may be said to be fairly well supplied with surface water, for besides the rivers that flow during the whole year, the channels of many of the smaller streams are seldom entirely without water. In 1879-80, 28,137 wells and 97 water-lifts were utilized for irrigation. Three lakes have been built or restored for the same purpose. The four principal mountain ranges are—in the north, the Sátpura hills, dividing the valleys of the Tápti and the Narbadá (Nerbudda), including the peak of Panchu-Pándu (3000 feet) and plateau of Turanmál (3800 feet), the starting-point of Khándesh history; in the south-east, the Hati; in the south, the Sátmála Chándor, or Ajanta range, separating Khándesh from the Deccan table-land, and, speaking roughly, from the Nizám's dominions; on the west, between Khándesh and Gujarát, is the northern extremity of the Sahyádri range. The Sátmála range is dotted with the remains of rock-cut Bhuddist monasteries and temples. The only cart road across the Sahyádris, between Khándesh and the Konkán, is through the Kundaibári Pass, 15 miles west of Nizámpur. The Arva and Gálna hills divide Khándesh from Násik.

Khándesh is not rich in minerals. A large area is under forest; but the want of conservancy rules in the past, and the destructive habits of the hill tribes have robbed the jungles of most of their valuable timber. The forest revenue for the year 1881-82 amounted to £14,200.

Wild beasts are numerous, comprising the tiger, leopard, hunting *chíta*, bear, lynx, wolf, bison, *sámbhar* deer, *nilgái*, spotted deer, antelope, ravine deer, and the four-horned deer. At the time of the introduction of British rule, and for many years after, tigers and leopards were found in every part of the District. As late as 1858, tigers were numerous; but since then they have been very closely hunted, and during the fifteen years ending 1881 as many as 202

were killed. This, together with the spread of tillage, has driven the tiger almost entirely out of the plains into the Sátpura hills in the north, the Hati and Sátmála ranges in the south-east and south, and the rough hilly country in the west.

Geology.—The geology of the District has been examined only as far south as the river Tápti. Alluvium and trap are the predominant formations, the latter in the mountain ranges and hill-spurs. Near Burhánpur is a curious patch of limestone formation of an infra-trappean character, and probably included in some ancient lava flow. South of the Tápti, the peaks of the Sahyádris take a strangely-tilted shape, with precipitous and long defiles between. A columnar structure of the rocks characterizes the ranges between Khándesh and Násik. Here the hills are covered with a stratum of dark basalt; and traces are obvious of felspar, hornblende, and iron-ore. There is plenty of stone for building purposes in the District, as well as gravel for road-making. A good quarry near Bhusáwal supplies the railway requirements. *Kankar*, or nodular limestone, and clay for brick-making, occur in all parts of the area.

History.—The history of Khándesh, like the history of the greater part of India, falls naturally into an earlier and a later period. The early period is the period of the Hindu, the latter the period of the Muhammadan dynasties. In the case of Khándesh, the early and partly mythical period extends from 150 B.C., the date of the oldest rock inscription yet discovered and deciphered, to the year 1295 A.D., when the Musalmán emperor Alá-ud-dín suddenly appeared from Delhi. The later and purely historical period extends from 1295 to the present time. In its course, Khándesh has been successively ruled by Muhammadan, Maráthá, and British masters.

The annals of the Hindu period may be said to commence with the mention in the *Mahábháráta* of the hill forts of Turanmál and Asirgarh; the ruler of Turanmál is recorded as having fought against the Pándyas; the fort of Asirgarh is named as a place of worship to Ashvattháma. Next, there is the local tradition that, from a time long previous to Christianity, the dynasty in power was that of a Rájput chief whose ancestors had come out of Oudh. The first dynasty of which distinct record remains is that of the Andrabhityás; the Andrabhityás were succeeded by Sáh kings; in the 5th century after Christ the Chálukya dynasties rose to power; local chiefs followed; and Khándesh was under an officer of the Yadáva princes of Devagíri (*Deogarh*) when Alá-ud-dín appeared.

The Muhammadan rule lasted until the Maráthás captured the stronghold of Asirgarh in 1760. In the interval, Khándesh was subject to successive governors from Delhi, sent by the different dynasties that rose, each on the ruins of its predecessor in that city.

Under Tughlak, from 1323 to 1370, Khándesh was administered from Ellichpur in Berár. Arab viceroys, favourites of the Delhi Emperor, succeeded; and from 1370 to 1600 the Arab dynasty of the Farukhis administered the District. The last year of the century (1599) saw the coming of the Múghals. In that year Akbar in person overran Khándesh at the head of an army, besieged Asirgarh, captured the fortress, and sent the reigning prince, Bahádur Khán, to Gwalior for safe-keeping. Khándesh became incorporated into the Delhi Empire. Its name was changed for a time to Dándesh in honour of its new governor, Prince Dányál. And from this period, a formerly rich, prosperous, and contented region began to grow impoverished and distracted.

Khándesh under the Múghals (1600–1760) was for more than a century and a half given up to every species of calamity, internal and external. Before the arrival of Akbar, all descriptions agree in representing it to have thriven wonderfully. Its thirty-nine sub-divisions supplied a revenue of over £200,000, and were able to furnish a contingent of 6000 infantry and 500 cavalry. The air was delightful, the winter temperate, the rivers and streams abundant. The land was highly cultivated. The husbandmen were dutiful subjects as well as laborious and thrifty workers. In many places the soil yielded three crops yearly. There was in the towns and villages a busy cloth manufacture. In one of its crowded cities—Burhánpur—were congregated inhabitants of all nations and of every handicraft. Then the rule of the Múghals was set up. The Múghal governors could not be held responsible for such natural changes as the years must bring; but as to the degenerate condition of Khándesh and its people under the Múghals, the following picture is extant:—'In 1609, the English merchant Hawkins, travelling from Surat to Burhánpur, even with an escort of about 60 Pathán horse, was attacked by a troop of outlaws. Next year, the Viceroy was defeated by the people of the Deccan, and the country was disturbed. The roads were not safe for bodies of less than 1000 horse. The Deccanis made inroads to the Tápti, plundering the people and sacking Ráver and other towns. Ten years later (1618) Sir Thomas Roe found the country quite as unsettled. Travellers, when they stopped for the night, made a ring-fence of their carts and pitched their tents inside. On any suspicion of danger, the local governor provided a special guard of horse.'

In 1630, Khándesh suffered from both war and famine. One army after another sent from Delhi, at times with the Emperor (Sháh Jahán) in command, laid the country waste. The chiefs rose in revolt. After the rains the governor of Gujarát (Guzerát) let loose a force of 26,000 men to ravage the country and sack the towns. The rains proved deficient over the country between Ahmadábád and

Daulatábád. Areas, before famous for fertility, became utterly barren. 'Life,' says the chronicler, 'was offered for a loaf, but none would buy; rank for a cake, but none cared for it; the ever-bounteous hand was stretched out to beg, and the rich wandered in search of food. Dogs' flesh was sold, and the pounded bones of the dead were mixed with flour. The flesh of a son was preferred to his love. The dying blocked the roads, and those who survived fled.' From 1634 to 1670 there was an interval of relief. Todar Mal's revenue system was introduced into the District, to the greater security of the *rάyat's* tenure and the State revenue. The land was measured, the produce of each *bighá* ascertained, and the proportion to be paid for each field to Government settled. Trade began to increase over the Khándesh roads, on its way to the emporium of Surat. The ways were safely guarded, the towns and villages made secure. Cotton, rice, and indigo were largely grown. Burhánpur again rose into importance as a cloth mart.

But in 1670 began the Múghal contests with the Maráthá hordes, which were to end by dragging the District back to a condition worse than that before its temporary prosperity. The struggles between the Múghals and Maráthás practically ended with the fall of Asirgarh in 1760, and the cession of Khándesh to the descendants of Sivají. The period of Maráthá supremacy in Khándesh lasted till the fall of the Peshwá in 1818. Until that year Khándesh experienced a return of most of its former miseries.

In 1802, the country was ravaged by Holkar's army. For two seasons the land remained uncared for, the destruction and ruin bringing on a severe famine. In the years that followed, Khándesh was further impoverished by the greed and misrule of the Peshwás. The people leaving their peaceful callings, joined together in bands, wandering over the country, robbing and laying waste. It was in this state that, in 1818, the District passed into British hands. Order was soon established, and has never since been disturbed.

Population.—In 1872, the population numbered 1,030,036. The Census returns of 1881 disclosed a total of 1,237,231 persons, residing in 23 towns and 2660 villages; average density, 124·4 persons per square mile; houses per square mile, 28; persons per village, 389; persons per house, 5·9. There has thus been an increase of 207,195, or 20 per cent., in the nine years since 1872. The increase is mainly due to immigration, arising from the large area of unoccupied fertile land available for cultivation. Classified according to sex, there were, in 1881, 632,468 males and 604,763 females; proportion of males, 51 per cent. Classified according to age, there were, under 15 years—261,174 boys and 250,736 girls; total children, 511,910, or 41 per cent. of the population. Classified according

to religion, there were 958,128 Hindus, 92,297 Muhammadans, 158 Pársís, 1146 Christians, 88 Jews, 43 Sikhs, 10,013 Jains, 175,349 Bhíls, 8 Buddhists, and 'others,' 1. Among the Hindus, Bráhmans numbered 40,459; Rájputs, 45,869; Chamárs, 16,259; Darjís (tailors), 14,220; Dhángars, 27,743; Dhobís (washermen), 6564; Nápits (barbers), 16,902; Kunbís (cultivators), 337,816; Kolís, 48,307; Kumbhárs (potters), 7041; Lohárs (blacksmiths), 7140; Málís (gardeners), 49,153; Sonárs (goldsmiths), 20,102; Sutárs (carpenters), 13,000; Telís (oil-men), 23,178; Bánjaras (carriers), 28,579; Mhárs, 85,674. Other Hindus, 170,122.

Of the thirteen divisions of Bráhmans in the District, three understand but do not speak Maráthí; the remaining nine use that dialect. As a rule, the main divisions eat together, but do not intermarry; the sub-divisions as a rule do both. The entire body of Bráhmans are the descendants of Bráhmans from every part of India who found their way to Khándesh. The Prabhus, a section of the 'writer' class, are scattered over the District, most of them in the service of Government. The sub-division of 'writers' called Thákúrs, who come from Upper India, follow some peculiar customs. They never marry their sons and daughters into the same sub-division. If possible, the daughter marries into a higher, the son, perhaps, into a lower one.

Besides the general body of cultivators, who are Kunbís by caste, large numbers of Párdhís—a low caste of wandering hunters and snarers—and Rájputs have long been settled in the District. Another class of cultivators worthy of notice are the Gújars, the most industrious and well-to-do of the agricultural population. Their name, and their habit of speaking Gujaráthí among themselves, show that they are immigrants from Gujarát. But they must have lived for many years in Khándesh, as in many villages they hold hereditary grants of money and land. Most of the traders are foreigners—Baniyás from Márwár and Gujarát, and Bhátiás, recent comers from Bombay. Wandering and aboriginal tribes form a large section of the population. The Bhíls, with a total strength of 175,349, or 14 per cent. of the whole, are the most important. Many of them are employed in police duties, and as village watchmen. But though most have settled down to peaceable ways, they show little skill in farming. Since the introduction of British rule into Khándesh, the efforts made, by kindly treatment and the offer of suitable employment, to win the Bhíls from a disorderly life have been most successful.

The Musalmán Bhíls are of two classes, namely, Tadvís and Nirdhís. The Tadvís, who live chiefly in the villages at the foot of the Sátpura hills, are a tall and well-built race, said to be descendants of Bhíl women and Musalmán men, dating from the Emperor Aurangzeb's reign. Like other Hindu converts to Muhammadanism, they have a

deep regard for certain Hindu deities. The Nirdhís dwell along the foot of the Sátmálás. In former times they were much dreaded; during seasons of revolt the most atrocious acts were invariably the work of the Nirdhís. Banjáras or Lamánis, the pack-bullock carriers of former, and the gipsies of present times, have suffered much by the increased use of carts and by the introduction of the railway. A few are well-to-do traders. But most of them live apart from the villages, in bands or *tándás*, each with its own leader or *náik*. Forced to give up their old employment, they now live chiefly by grazing, and cutting grass and wood. The Musalmán section of the population is poor, and employed chiefly as messengers, policemen, and day-labourers.

The Census divides the male population into the following six main groups as regards occupation:—(1) Professional class, including State officials of every kind and the learned professions, 19,636; (2) domestic servants, inn and lodging-house keepers, 4595; (3) commercial class, including bankers, merchants, carriers, etc., 7276; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, including gardeners, 273,640; (5) industrial class, including all manufacturers and artisans, 61,342; (6) indefinite and non-productive class, comprising general labourers, male children, and persons of unspecified occupation, 265,979.

Of the 2683 towns and villages in the District, in 1881, 1133 contained less than two hundred inhabitants; 931 from two to five hundred; 379 from five hundred to a thousand; 169 from one to two thousand; 27 from two to three thousand; 23 from three to five thousand; 15 from five to ten thousand; 5 from ten to fifteen thousand; and 1 from fifteen to twenty thousand.

Language.—Gujaráthí is in use among the higher class husbandmen to the north of the Tápti, and it is the language of trade throughout the District; but Maráthí, the speech of the people in the south and west, is the language of Government offices and schools, and is gradually gaining ground. In their homes the bulk of the people speak a dialect known as Khándeshí or Ahiráni, a mixture of Gujaráthí, Maráthí, Nemádí, and Hindustáni.

Agriculture.—In 1881, agriculture supported 820,127 persons, or 66 per cent. of the entire population. All varieties of soil—black, red, and light, from the richest to the poorest—are found. The agricultural stock in State villages amounted in 1881-82 to 113,187 ploughs, 75,501 carts, 369,782 bullocks, 284,295 cows, 131,244 buffaloes, 15,949 horses, 252,744 sheep and goats, and 8705 asses. The District contains many fine cows and bullocks, brought chiefly from Nimár and Berár. But the greater number of the cattle are small and poor, reduced during the hot season to the most wretched condition. The horses also are small, and of little value. To improve the breed, Government has introduced

bulls and stud horses. Certain tracts have, from their rugged character and unhealthy climate, been excluded from the Survey operations. Out of 3,455,122 acres, the total area of Government cultivable land, 2,861,910 acres, or 82·83 per cent., were taken up for cultivation in 1881–82. Of these, 179,962 acres, or 6·29 per cent., were fallow or under grass. Of the remaining 2,681,947 acres under actual cultivation (3478 acres of which were twice cropped), grain crops occupied 1,515,346 acres, or 56·5 per cent.; pulses occupied 117,286, or 4·37 per cent.; oil-seeds occupied 247,390, or 9·22 per cent.; fibres occupied 759,346, or 28·31 per cent., of which 758,134 acres were under cotton; and miscellaneous crops occupied 46,057 acres, or 1·71 per cent.

Irrigation is more extensively practised in Khándesh than in the Deccan and Southern Maráthá country. The principal agricultural products exported are wheat, gram, linseed, sesamum, and cotton. Millet is retained for local consumption, and forms the staple article of food. Indigo and opium, once important products, are now no longer grown. Thirty years ago, the poppy was a favourite crop; but in 1853, the Khándesh opium factory was closed, and the further cultivation of the poppy forbidden. On the other hand, the area under linseed and cotton has increased from year to year. Two descriptions of foreign cotton, Dhárwár and Hinganghát, have been successfully introduced. Cotton is seldom grown oftener than once in three years in the same field, whether of black or light soil, the intermediate crops being wheat and Indian millet. A Government farm has been established at Bhadgáon. Almost every year is marked by some partial failure of the crops. The District is liable to floods, the rivers overflowing the country for a considerable distance from their banks.

Attempts at Land Reclamation.—Several attempts have been made, dating from 1829, at a re-colonization of the Pal *tappa*, a waste tract in the neighbourhood of the Sátpura hills, which is said to have been formerly well inhabited. At the time of the British occupation in 1818, the whole was found to be an uninhabited jungle, excessively unhealthy, and infested with wild beasts. It is said to have been deserted about the middle of the 17th century, owing to famine; and the remains of ancient buildings show that the village of Pal was formerly a place of considerable importance. Portions of the old fort and *sarái* are still standing, though much ruined; a handsome mosque with a fountain and reservoir still remain in good repair; and the lines of the old streets were traceable in 1870. Small mounds here and there mark the site of an old fort; but most of the villages have so entirely disappeared that their sites cannot be ascertained. Several attempts have been made to colonize Pal, or some other village in the *tappa*, as a preliminary to the settlement of the whole tract. The experiment is still (1885) going on, but as yet, owing to the excessive

poverty of the cultivators and other causes, it has yielded little or no results.

Industries.—The Trunk Road from Bombay to Agra passes through the District, and of late years roads have been made along all the chief lines of traffic. The Great Indian Peninsula Railway runs for 124 miles through the District from east to west; Bhusáwal junction is situated on this portion of the line; and about 25 miles of the Nágpur branch are within the District. The chief exports are food-grains, oil-seeds, butter, indigo, wax, and honey. The chief imports—salt, spices, metal, piece-goods, yarn, and sugar. The most important article of trade is cotton. There are 2 steam cotton ginning factories, 13 steam presses, and one steam factory for spinning and weaving cotton. Of late years, many Bombay mercantile houses have established agencies in Khándesh; and towards the east, in the rich Tápti valley, Jalgáon and Bhusáwal are rising into centres of an important trade.

Among declining industries may be noticed the manufacture of coarse paper, the spinning of yarn by Mhár women, the weaving of coarse cotton cloth, and the manufacture of wax bangles.

The internal trade is carried on by means of weekly markets, and a succession of fairs and religious feasts. The rates of interest vary from 9 to 24 per cent. per annum, rising in some cases as high as 36 per cent. Labourers earn 4¾d. a day; bricklayers and carpenters, 1s. The current prices of the chief articles of food during 1882 were, for a rupee (2s.)—wheat, 34 lbs.; *joár*, 54 lbs.; rice, 22 lbs.; *dál* (split peas), 22 lbs.

Natural Calamities.—The Tápti and lesser streams are liable to sudden and disastrous rising of their waters. Six great floods have caused more or less injury at various periods in the District. These floods took place in 1822, 1829, 1837, 1872, 1875, and in 1876. In 1822, sixty-five villages were entirely destroyed by the Tápti, and fifty were partly washed away, causing a loss in money value of £25,000. On Sunday, 15th September 1872, the Girna and Pánjhra rose and swept away 500 houses in the town of Dhúliá. A whole village on the opposite side of the Pánjhra suddenly disappeared. At seven in the morning the flood was forty-five feet above the level of the river-bed. One hundred and fifty-two villages were damaged, and property to the value of £160,000 destroyed. Over 1000 persons were on this occasion relieved by public and private charity. The most severe famine on record is that of 1802–04, when the selling price of grain is reported to have risen to 1 *ser* per rupee (1s. per lb.). Great numbers died, and extensive tracts were left deserted and waste. This famine was due, not to any natural causes, but to the ravages of Holkar's army, who during two years (1802–03) spread desolation and famine

throughout the District. Scarcities not amounting to famine occurred in 1824, 1833–36, 1845, and 1876–77. Locusts have sometimes visited the District, but never in sufficient numbers to do much harm. In 1869, a large cloud crossed the District from north to south, and in 1873 and in 1878 they did some injury to the late crop. Rats in 1847–48 and 1878–79 caused much havoc.

Administration.—For administrative purposes the District is distributed into 16 Sub-divisions. The total revenue raised in 1881–82 under all heads—imperial, local, and municipal—amounted to £507,320, showing an incidence of taxation of 8s. 2⅗d. per head. The land-tax forms the principal source of revenue, amounting to £352,564. Other important items are stamps and excise. The District local funds, created since 1863, for works of public utility and rural education, yielded a total sum of £33,132. There are 18 municipalities, containing an aggregate population of 148,084 persons; total municipal revenue, £10,159, the incidence of taxation varying from 4d. to 3s. 7d. per head. The administration of the District in revenue matters is entrusted to a Collector and 5 Assistants, of whom 4 are covenanted civilians. For the settlement of civil disputes, there are 10 courts; the number of suits decided in 1881–82 was 18,832. The total strength of the regular police for the protection of person and property consisted of 1845 officers and men, being 1 policeman to every 670 of the population. The total cost was £27,744, equal to £2, 15s. 9⅔d. per square mile of area and 5⅓d. per head of population. The number of persons convicted of any offence, great or small, was 3551, being 1 to every 348 of the population. Education has widely spread of late years. In 1855–56 there were only 7 schools, attended by 715 pupils. In 1881–82 there were 352 schools, attended by 20,815 pupils, being an average of 1 school for every 7½ villages. There are 3 libraries and 3 printing presses for the publication of vernacular papers, which have, however, only a small circulation.

Climate.—The rainy period extends from the middle of June to the middle of October; the cold months from the middle of October to the middle of January; and the hot months from January to June. From differences of elevation the climate varies greatly in different parts of the District. Very seldom is the rainfall over the whole area sufficient. The town of Dhúliá, which may be taken to illustrate the average, had an annual rainfall of 21·7 inches during the period of twenty-nine years ending in 1879. The amount varied during these years from 10 to 35 inches. The average rainfall during the five years ending 1882 was 27 inches. In the cold season (October to January), except on cloudy days, the climate is pleasant and bracing. At Dhúliá the average minimum between 1871 and 1879 ranged between 40° F. and 52°. The heat of the summer period is intense. The

average maximum reading at Dhúliá during the 1871–79 period was 106° for the month of May. The extreme maximum was as high as 111°. In the Tápti valley 115° has been reached during a hot and stifling night.

The general health of the people is best in the hot season, and worst in the cold season. Malaria is rife at the beginning of the latter season, when the ground commences to dry after the rains. In the east and centre, the climate is trying to Europeans, but healthy to the natives. In the west, all periods except the hot are injurious to native and European alike. The prevailing diseases are fever and skin affections. Seven dispensaries afforded medical relief, in 1881–82, to 67 in-door and 29,044 out-door patients, and 38,510 persons were vaccinated. Since 1881–82, three new dispensaries have been opened. [For further information regarding Khándesh, see the *Gazetteer of the Bombay Presidency*, published under Government orders, and compiled by Mr. J. M. Campbell, C.S., vol. xii., Khándesh District (Government Central Press, Bombay, 1880). Also the *Settlement Report of Khándesh District*, by Mr. A. F. Davidson, C.S. (1854); the *Bombay Census Report* for 1881; and the several Administration and Departmental Reports from 1880 to 1883.]

Khandgiri.—Hill in Purí District, Orissa; situated about 12 miles west of the road from Cuttack to Purí, and 5 miles east of Bhuvaneswar. Lat. 20° 16′ N., long. 85° 50′ E. Twin sandstone hills, Khandgiri and Udáyagiri, rise abruptly out of the jungle, separated by a narrow gorge, each of which is honeycombed into caves and temples cut out of the rock. These cave dwellings are believed to form the very earliest memorials of Buddhism in India. They are of various ages, and of different degrees of architecture. The oldest of them consist of a single cell, little larger than a dog-kennel, cut in the face of scarcely accessible precipices, and with no signs of even the primitive carpentry architecture. Others of a somewhat later date are shaped into strangely distorted resemblances of animals. One has from time immemorial been known as the Snake Cave, another as the Elephant Cave, a third as the Tiger Cave. This last stands out from the rock in the form of a monstrous wild beast's jaw, with nose and eyes above, and teeth overhanging the entrance to the cell. Such cells in their turn give way to more comfortable excavations, shaded by pillared verandahs, and lighted by several doors, which again are succeeded by others still more elaborate. Of the last, the most important is a two-storied monastery, known as the Rání-núr or Queen's Palace, highly sculptured in bas-relief. These sandstone caves, as a whole, represent ten centuries of human existence, or from 500 B.C. to 500 A.D. The oldest are on UDAYAGIRI HILL, the more modern ones being on KHANDGIRI, whose summit is crowned by a Jain temple erected by the Maráthás at the end of the last century.

Khandgosh.—Village and head-quarters of a police circle (*thánd*) in the head-quarters Sub-division of Bardwán District, Bengal; situated on the road from Bardwán town to Sonámukhí and Bánkurá. Lat. 23° 12′ 30″ N., long. 87° 44′ 20″ E.

Khándia. — Petty State in the Jháláwár division of Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency; consisting of 1 village, with 2 separate proprietors. Area, 5 square miles. Population (1872) 966; (1881) 781. Estimated revenue in 1881, £294; tribute of £80, 13s. is paid to the British Government, £8, 2s. to the Nawáb of Junágarh, and £1, 6s. as *sukhri* on account of Ahmadábád. Khándia village is situated about four miles to the north-east of Bhoika *thánd*, and eight miles south-east of the Limbdi station on the Bhaunagar-Gondal Railway.

Khandpárá.—Native State in Orissa, lying between lat. 20° 11′ 15″ and 20° 25′ N., and long. 85° 1′ and 85° 24′ 40″ E. Bounded on the north by the Mahánadi river, which separates it from Narsinghpur and Baramba; on the east by Bánki and Purí District; on the south by Purí and Nayágarh; and on the west by Daspallá. The State originally formed part of Nayágarh, and was separated from it about 200 years ago by a brother of the Nayágarh Rájá, who established his independence. The present chief, a Rájput by caste, is the eighth in descent from the founder. The country forms a very valuable territory, and is one of the best cultivated of the Orissa States. Fine *sál* timber abounds in the hilly tracts, and magnificent banian and mango trees stud the plain. It is intersected by the Kuariá and Dauka rivers, small tributaries of the Mahánadi.

Area, 244 square miles, with 321 villages and 12,946 houses. The first Census of 1872 thus returned the population, according to religion —Hindus, 57,007, or 93·6 per cent.; Muhammadans, 38, or ·1 per cent.; 'others,' 3832, or 6·3 per cent.; total, 60,877, namely, males 30,234, and females 30,643. Classified according to race, there were, in 1872—aboriginal tribes, 3561, or 5·9 per cent., mainly composed of Kandhs (1596) and Savars (1126); semi-Hinduized aborigines, 6438, or 10·6 per cent., consisting principally of Páns (3577), Mehtárs (1547), and Kandáras (1064); Hindu castes, 50,840, or 83·5 per cent.; Muhammadans, 38.

The more recent Census of 1881 followed a different classification, and only returned the population according to religion. In that year the population numbered 66,296, namely, males 33,891, and females 32,405, showing an increase of 5419, or 8·8 per cent. in nine years. In religion the people are almost entirely Hindus, that faith being professed by 66,196 persons, while only 60 were returned as Muhammadans, and 40 as belonging to aboriginal religions. The principal seat of trade is Kántilo, on the banks of the Mahánadi, lat. 20° 21′ 46″ N., long. 85° 14′ 20″ E. Popula-

tion (1872) 5386. Not returned in the Census of 1881. Five other villages also contained upwards of 100 houses in 1872, namely, Khandpárá, the capital of the State, and residence of the Rájá, lat. 20° 15′ 50″ N., long. 85° 12′ 51″ E., 680 houses. Khandpárá had risen to the highest place as regards population by 1881, in which year it contained 5543 inhabitants, namely, Hindus, 5529, and Muhammadans, 14. Biengoniá, lat. 20° 15′ 8″ N., long. 85° 16′ E., 211 houses; Fatehgarh, lat. 20° 17′ 37″ N., long. 85° 22′ 32″ E., 158 houses; Banmalipur, lat. 20° 16′ 14″ N., long. 85° 15′ 12′ E., 130 houses; Nemápol, lat. 20° 16′ 10″ N., long. 85° 16′ 14″ E. Estimated annual revenue of the chief, £2435; tribute, £421. A post-office has recently been established at Kántilo, and increased means of communication have been afforded by the construction of good metalled roads.

Khandtarn.—Town in Champáran District, Bengal. Lat. 26° 40′ 15″ N., long. 85° 5′ 45″ E. Population (1872) 6207. Not separately returned in the Census of 1881.

Khandwá.—The eastern *tahsíl* or revenue Sub-division of Nimár District, Central Provinces; situated between 21° 32′ and 22° 13′ N. lat., and between 76° 6′ 30″ and 77° 1′ E. long. Area (1881), 2202 square miles; number of towns and villages, 497; houses, 32,009. Population in 1872, but according to the area of 1881, 138,922. Population in 1881, 154,000, namely, males 80,842, and females 73,158, showing an increase of 15,078 in nine years. Average density of population, 70 persons per square mile. The adult agricultural population (male and female) numbered 61,689, or 40·06 per cent. of that of the whole *tahsíl*, the average area of cultivated and cultivable land being 11 acres for each adult agriculturist. Of the total area of 2202 square miles, less than one-half, or 1066 square miles, is assessed for Government revenue. Of this area, 482 square miles were returned as cultivated in 1881, 372 square miles as still available for cultivation, and 212 square miles as uncultivable waste. Total Government revenue (1881), including local rates and cesses, £12,021, or an average of 9⅝d. per acre of cultivated land. Total rental paid by cultivators, including rates and cesses, £26,155, or an average of 1s. 7⅞d. per cultivated acre. Total number of civil courts (including those at head-quarters for the entire District, and the Cantonment Magistrate's court at Asírgarh), 6; criminal courts, 9; number of police stations (including outposts), 18; strength of regular police force, 135 men, besides village police (*chaukídárs*).

Khandwá.—Head-quarters and civil station of Nimár District, Central Provinces. Lat. 21° 50′ N., long. 76° 23′ E. Khandwá is perhaps the most advancing town in the Central Provinces. It has a station on the Great Indian Peninsula Railway, where the whole traffic of Central India towards Bombay meets the line. Thus it has entirely

superseded BURHANPUR, the ancient centre of trade between Málwá, the Narbadá (Nerbudda) valley, and the Deccan. Population (1877) 14,119; (1881) 15,142, namely, males 8472, and females 6670. Classified according to religion, there were, in 1881—Hindus, 10,321; Muhammadans, 3851; Christians, 568; Jains, 264; Pársís, 90; Jews, 26; Satnámí, 1; aboriginal religions, 21. Municipal income (1882–83), £3440, of which £2386 was derived from taxation, nearly all from octroi duties; average incidence of taxation, 3s. 1¾d. per head. Extensive barracks have been built for the relays of troops who pass through in the cold season, and also a good travellers' bungalow with a spacious *sarái* or native rest-house, near the railway station.

The Arab geographer, Al Birúní (*circa* 1000 A.D.), mentions Khandwá; and a century later, it was a great seat of Jain worship. The mound on which the town stands has supplied many finely carved pillars, cornices, and other remains of the old Jain buildings, which have been built into Bráhmanical temples, the walls of the Maráthá fort, and other structures, besides forming materials for the Sivaite temples surrounding the four *kunds* or water reservoirs, one of which is on each side of the town, that on the west side bearing the date A.D. 1132. Ferishta describes Khandwá as the seat of a local governor of the Ghorí kingdom of Málwá in 1516. The town was burnt by Jaswant Ráo Holkar in 1802, and again partially by Tántiá Topí in 1858. The civil station, 2 miles east of the town, contains a court-house, circuit-house, and church. The road to Indore is in good repair.

Khángarh. — Town and municipality in Muzaffargarh *tahsíl*, Muzaffargarh District, Punjab; situated about 4 miles from the present bed of the Chenáb, and 11 miles south of Muzaffargarh town. Lat. 29° 55′ N., long. 71° 12′ E. Khángarh is the head-quarters of a police division (*tháná*), and was chosen in 1849 as the civil station of the District; it was found, however, liable to inundation from the Chenáb, and in 1859 the head-quarters were removed to Muzaffargarh. Population (1868) 3717; (1881) 3417, namely, Hindus, 1909; Muhammadans, 1504; Jains, 3; Sikh, 1. Number of houses, 947. Municipal income (1875–1876), £377; (1881–82), £522; average incidence, 3s. 0¾d. per head. The land around the town is well wooded, fertile, and more highly cultivated than any other part of the District. Khánpur is little more than an ordinary village compactly built, chiefly of brick, with one principal street running north and south, from which narrow lanes branch off at right angles. The main streets and lanes are neatly paved. At the beginning of the century it was an Afghán post, but the town has now outgrown the dimensions of the circular fortification which originally enclosed it. It has no manufactures, and owes all the importance it possesses to being the agricultural centre for a fertile tract. The town contains a grain market, primary school, municipal hall, dis-

pensary, and *sarái* or native inn. Outside the town is an encamping ground.

Khaniá - dhána. — One of the petty States in Bundelkhand, under the political superintendence of the Central India Agency. It originally formed part of the Orchhá (Urchá) or Tehri State, the *jágír* having been granted by Udet Singh to his younger brother, Amán Singh, about the year 1703. After the dismemberment of the Orchhá State by the Maráthás, the Peshwá granted a *sanad* for the *jágír* to Amír Singh. For a long time the claim to feudal suzerainty over Khaniá-dhána was disputed between the Maráthá State of Jhánsi and Orchhá. However, in 1862, when the Jhánsi Ráj was extinct, it was decided that the Khaniá-dhána *jágír* was directly dependent on the British Government, as it had undoubtedly formed part of the Maráthá conquests, to which the British Government had succeeded. The chief is a Hindu Búndela. The present (1883) Rájá being a minor, the administration is conducted by his uncle. The area of the State is about 84 square miles. Population (1881) 13,494, namely, males 7089, and females 6405. Classified according to religion, there were—Hindus, 12,857; Jains, 480; and Muhammadans, 157. The revenue is estimated at £2000 a year. The State is in a wild tract of country, with much hill and jungle, west of the Betwá river and south-west of Orchhá.

Khaniá-dhána.—Chief town in Khaniá-dhána State, Bundelkhand, Central India; situated in lat. 25° 1′ 30″ N., long 78° 11′ 30″ E. Population (1881) 1961; number of houses, 370. The town contains a small fortress, which forms the residence of the Rájá. It is situated amidst much hill and jungle. The roads leading to it are extremely bad.

Khanna. — Town and municipality in Samrála *tahsíl*, Ludhiáná District, Punjab. Lat. 30° 42′ N., long. 76° 16′ E. Situated on the Grand Trunk Road, and on the Sind, Punjab, and Delhi Railway, 27 miles south-west of Ludhiáná town. Population (1868) 3408; (1881) 3988, namely, Hindus, 2643; Muhammadans, 1090; Sikhs, 254; 'other,' 1. Number of houses, 1380. A third-class municipality. Municipal revenue (1875-76), £160; (1882-82), £439; average incidence, 2s. 2¼d. per head. The place possesses no importance beyond being the seat of a railway station, and the head-quarters of a police circle (*thánú*).

Khánpur.—Village in Shikárpur *táluk*, Sukkur (Sakhár) Sub-division of Shikárpur District, Sind, Bombay Presidency; situated about 8 miles north of Shikárpur town. Lat. 28° 0′ 15″ N., long. 68° 47′ E. Population (1872) 2807, namely, 1849 Muhammadans (principally belonging to the Bapar and Sethar tribes) and 958 Hindus (of the Loháni caste). Population (1881) below 2000. Head-quarters of a *tappadár*, with police

station, *musafirkhána* (travellers' rest-house), and cattle pound. There are 52 wells in and about the village. Manufactures—weaving, shoemaking, and pottery. Trade chiefly in agricultural produce. Road communication with Zurkhel, Thairio, and Abád Meláni.

Khánpur.—Commercial town in Baháwalpur State, Punjab; situated on the Ikhtiárwah, a navigable canal from the Panjnad. Lat. 30° 9′ N., long. 71° 16′ E. Population (1881) 7189, namely, Muhammadans, 4738; Hindus, 2450; 'other,' 1. Ruinous mud fort; good roofed *bázár.* The country in the immediate neighbourhood is irrigated, and supports a considerable population; but the sandy desert to the south presents the usual barren appearance of the Punjab uplands. Thornton says that Khánpur bears marks of having formerly possessed greater importance than at present. It now forms a station on the Indus Valley State Railway, 133 miles from Rohri, and 147 miles from Múltán. The town contains a flat-roofed *bázár,* and a ruined fort 200 yards long and 120 broad.

Khánua (*Khánwa*).—Village in Bhartpur (Bhurtpore) State, Rájputána; situated on the road from Agra to Ajmere, 37 miles west of the former and 197 miles east of the latter town. Lat. 27° 2′ N., long. 77° 33′ E. Thornton states that this village was the site of the great battle, in 1526 A.D., between the Múghal conqueror Bábar and the confederated Rájput princes under Ráná Sanka of Udaipur (Oodeypore). The latter were completely defeated; Bábar henceforth assumed the title of *Ghází,* 'Victorious over the Infidel,' and the supremacy of Upper India passed into the hands of the Muhammadan invaders.

Khánwáhan.—Village in the Kandiáro *táluk,* Naushahro Sub-division, Haidarábád (Hyderábád) District, Sind, Bombay Presidency; 8 miles north-east of Kandiáro town. The population, chiefly agriculturists, is inconsiderable. Cotton cloth is manufactured for home consumption and export. The town is supposed to have been founded some 300 years ago by one Khán Sahta, a *zamíndár.* Head-quarters of a *tappadár.*

Khanwah Canal.—One of the Upper Sutlej (Satlaj) Inundation Channels in Lahore and Montgomery Districts, Punjab, and one of the most important of those useful irrigation works. The canal follows the course of an ancient flood-torrent bed, with a cross cut from the Sutlej. Its origin and date remain uncertain, though tradition assigns its construction, amongst other persons, to Khán Khánan, a minister of the Emperor Akbar, who held this part of the country as a fief. In 1839, the head was reported to be choked up with sand; and in the succeeding year, Mahárájá Kharrak Singh, the son and successor of the great Mahárájá Ranjít Singh, cleared it out by contributions levied from the surrounding landowners. Shortly afterwards,

the canal once more silted up, and continued inefficient till 1843, when Mahárájá Sher Singh repaired it at the expense of the State, which has since levied a half-yearly water-rate of 16s. per acre irrigated. The head-water flows from the Sutlej near Mámokí, in Lahore District, and the channel runs as far as Dhappai, 26 miles below Dipálpur in Montgomery. Since the annexation, the Canal Department has taken charge of the works, and greatly promoted its efficiency, and much is still being done to render it useful to a larger area. The area watered by it in 1881-82 was 84,456 acres, and the water-rate levied amounted to £10,095.

Khápá.—Town and municipality in Nágpur District, Central Provinces. Lat. 21° 25′ N., long. 79° 2′ E.; situated on high ground overlooking the Kanhán river, 20 miles north of Nágpur city, with which it is connected by the Chhindwárá road as far as Pátan-sáongí (14 miles), and thence by a main District road. Population (1877) 8007; (1881) 8465, namely, Hindus, 6664; Kabírpanthís, 1115; Muhammadans, 636; Jains, 49; 'other,' 1. Municipal income (1882-83), £577, of which £556 was derived from taxation, nearly all octroi duty; average incidence of taxation, 1s. 3¾d. per head. Fine groves surround the town, and the river and numerous wells supply excellent water. Melons are largely cultivated on the sandbanks in the river bed. Khápá manufactures and exports cotton cloth of good quality; and imports cotton, wool, grain, European goods and hardware, and silk thread. Several mercantile firms in the town carry on large transactions by means of bills with Poona and other distant cities. The town is well kept; it has a dispensary, a school where English is taught, police buildings, and a *sarái;* and four good metalled roads converge in the central market-place.

Kharáila (*Kharela*).—Town in Hamírpur District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 25° 32′ N., long. 79° 50′ 45″ E. Situated near the Charkhári border, within which lie many of its lands; distant from Hamírpur town, 40 miles south-west. Population (1872) 7809; (1881) 7633, namely, Hindus, 7300, and Muhammadans, 333. Police station, village school, *bázár*, handsome temple. No trade or manufactures.

Kharakpur.—Town and head-quarters of a police circle (*thána*) in Monghyr District, Bengal. Lat. 25° 7′ 10″ N., long. 86° 35′ 20″ E. The *pargana* which gives its name to the town forms one of the estates of the Mahárájá of Darbhangah. Kharakpur, with some neighbouring villages (population 5450), was constituted a municipal union in 1882; income, £72, 14s. Extensive irrigation works are being carried out here under the superintendence of the Assistant Manager of the Darbhangah estate. Charitable dispensary and vernacular school, maintained by the Mahárájá.

Kharál.—Petty State in Mahi Kántha, Province of Gujarát (Guzerát), Bombay Presidency. The estate contains 12 villages, lying along the banks of the river Vátrak. The Miáh or chief, Sirdár Singh, is a Mukwána Kolí, converted to Islam, and observes a sort of Muhammadan and Hindu religion. There is no *sanad* authorizing adoption; the succession follows the rule of primogeniture. The area of the land under cultivation is estimated at 3250 acres, the population in 1880 was returned at 2841, and revenue at £1650. Tribute of £175 is paid to the Gáekwár of Baroda, and of £76 to the British Government. School with 80 pupils.

Kharar.—*Tahsíl* of Ambála (Umballa) District, Punjab; situated between 30° 38′ and 30° 53′ N. lat., and between 76° 34′ and 76° 49′ E. long. Area, 366 square miles. Population (1881) 167,869, namely, males 91,856, and females 76,013; average density, 459 persons per square mile. Classified according to religion—Hindus, 110,445; Muhammadans, 32,286; Sikhs, 25,019; Jains, 105; and Christians, 14. Land revenue of the *tahsíl*, £12,542. The average area under cultivation for the five years ending 1881–82 is returned at 160,176 acres, the principal crops being—wheat, 67,753 acres; *joár*, 20,837 acres; Indian corn, 19,606 acres; gram, 10,956 acres; rice, 6443 acres; cotton, 14,552 acres; and sugar-cane, 3006 acres. The administrative staff consists of a *tahsíldár* and an honorary magistrate, presiding over 2 civil and 2 criminal courts; number of police stations (*thánás*), 3; strength of regular police, 51 men; village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 445.

Kharar.—Town and municipality in Ambála (Umballa) District, Punjab, and head-quarters of Kharar *tahsíl*. Lat. 30° 44′ 45″ N., long. 76° 41′ 15″ E. Situated on the road from Ambála to Rupár, 25 miles north of the former town. Population (1868) 4884; (1881) 4265, namely, Hindus, 2503; Muhammadans, 1639; Sikhs, 71; Jains, 50; 'others,' 2. Number of houses, 792. Municipal income (1875–76), £240; (1882–83), £436; average incidence, 2s. 0½d. per head. The town is of no importance apart from its official position as the head-quarters of a *tahsíl* and police circle (*thánú*).

Kharda.—Town in the Jámkher Sub-division, Ahmadnagar District, Bombay Presidency; situated 56 miles south-east of Ahmadnagar town. Lat. 18° 38′ N., long. 75° 31′ E. Population (1872) 6899; (1881) 5562, namely, 2852 males and 2710 females. Hindus numbered 4685; Muhammadans, 583; and Jains, 294. In 1795, an engagement took place near here between the Maráthás and the Nizám. The general of the latter, being defeated, retreated to Kharda, where he was completely hemmed in by the enemy, and constrained to accede to an ignominious treaty. The town contains upwards of 500 substantial merchants, shopkeepers, and money-lenders, many of whom

carry on a large trade in grain, country cloth, and other articles. Kharda belonged to the Nimbálkar, one of the Nizám's nobles, whose handsome mansion in the middle of the town is now in ruins. In 1745, the Nimbálkar built a fort to the south-east of the town. The fort is square, in good repair, being built with cut stone walls 25 or 30 feet, and a ditch, now in ruins. The walls have a massive gateway, and two gates at right angles to each other. The cattle market on Tuesday is the largest in the District. Post-office.

Khardah.—Village in the District of the Twenty-four Parganás, Bengal; situated on the left bank of the Húglí river. Lat. 22° 43′ 30″ N., long. 88° 24′ 30″ E. A Vaishnav place of pilgrimage in honour of Nityánand, one of the disciples of Chaitanya, who took up his residence here. His descendants are regarded as *gurus* or spiritual guides by the Vaishnavs. Khardah is a small roadside station on the Eastern Bengal Railway, 11 miles north of Calcutta.

Kharela.—Town in Hamírpur District, North-Western Provinces.—*See* KHARAILA.

Khárgon.—Town in Indore State, Bhopáwar Agency, Central India; now in ruins, but once the capital of the southern part of the old tract of Nimár. Distant from Indore city 60 miles south, and from Mhau (Mhow) 49 miles south. Lat. 21° 52′ N., long. 75° 43′ 45″ E.

Khári.—Village in the District of the Twenty-four Parganás, Bengal; situated on the old bed of the Ganges. The village contains a small church connected with the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel, and many of its inhabitants are native converts. A tank called Gangá Chakragháta is held peculiarly sacred by the Hindus, and multitudes annually resort to its waters. English school.

Kharián.—North-eastern *tahsíl* of Gujrát District, Punjab; consisting mainly of a dry submontane tract, intersected by hill torrents, in deep beds unavailable for purposes of irrigation. Lat. 32° 21′ to 33° N., long. 73° 37′ 30″ to 74° 15′ E. Area, 647 square miles. Population (1881) 217,371, namely, males 113,398, and females 103,973; average density of population, 336 persons per square mile. Classified according to religion, Muhammadans numbered 199,643; Hindus, 15,456; Sikhs, 2209; and 'others,' 63. Number of villages, 504, of which 466 contain less than five hundred inhabitants. Number of houses, 23,868; number of families, 49,496. The average annual area under cultivation for the five years ending 1881–82 is returned at 255,451 acres, the principal crops being—wheat, 108,763 acres; *bájra*, 58,076 acres; *joár*, 20,455 acres; barley, 16,437 acres; *moth*, 11,850 acres; gram, 3339 acres; and cotton, 5843 acres. Revenue of the *tahsíl*, £16,432. The administrative staff consists of a *tahsíldár* and *munsif*, presiding over 1 criminal and 2 civil courts. Number of police circles (*thánás*), 4; strength of regular police, 82 men; village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 295.

Khariár.—*Zamíndárí* estate in Ráipur District, Central Provinces; lying to the east of Bindra Nawágarh, and stretching for 53 miles from north to south, and 32 miles from east to west. Area, 1306 square miles; number of villages, 508; houses, 15,587. Population (1881) 58,918, namely, males 30,474, and females 28,444; average density, 45·11 persons per square mile. Khariár is said to have been formed long ago out of the Patná State, as a dowry for the daughter of a Patná chief. Nearly half the area is cultivated. The chief is a Chauhán.

Khariár.—Village in Ráipur *tahsíl*, Ráipur District, Central Provinces, and head-quarters of the Khariár *zamíndárí*, situated in lat. 20° 17′ 30″ N., long. 82° 48′ 30″ E. Population (1881) 2170, namely, Hindus, 1949; Muhammadans, 51; aboriginal religions, 170.

Kharkhauda.—Town and municipality in Sámpla *tahsíl*, in Rohtak District, Punjab. Lat. 28° 52′ N., long. 76° 57′ E. Population (1868) 4181; (1881) 4144, namely, Hindus, 2565, and Muhammadans, 1579. Number of houses, 511. Municipal income (1881–82), £203; average incidence, 1s. per head. Kharkhauda is an ancient town, bearing traces of a bygone prosperity, and now gradually falling into decay. In 1881 the population was decimated by fever, and many of the survivors left the town, causing the trade to fall off seriously for a time, but it is now (1884) gradually recovering. The town contains a police station, rest-house, school, and post-office.

Kharmatar.—Village in the District of the Santál Parganás, Bengal. Railway station on the chord line of the East Indian Railway, 168 miles from Calcutta.

Kharod.—Town in Biláspur District, Central Provinces; 40 miles east of Biláspur town. Population under 2000, comprising traders of all kinds. The weekly market is well attended. The origin of Kharod is unknown; but an old tablet bears the date of Samvat 902 (A.D. 845), and the remains of ancient earthworks prove the place to have been strongly fortified.

Kharsal.—*Zamíndárí* estate in Sambalpur District, Central Provinces; 30 miles west of Sambalpur town. Population (1881) 5135, entirely agricultural, principally Gonds, Binjwars, Savars, and a few Kultas, residing in 20 villages, on an area of 30 square miles. Kharsal, the chief village, has a good school. The estate lies at the base of the Bara Pánár Hills, and consists partly of open country with a good soil, and is partly hilly, with a fair forest growth. The proximity of the hills gives the cultivators many facilities for storing water for irrigation by means of dams. The staple crops are rice and oil-seeds. A little sugar-cane is also grown. Total revenue, £123; Government tribute, £45. The estate derives its origin from the grant of this village three centuries ago, in the reign of Baliár Singh, Rájá of Sambalpur, to one

Udam Gond. The late chief, Dayá Sardár, was hanged in 1860 for his share in the Surendra Sái rebellion. Kharsal village is situated in lat. 21° 31′ N., long. 83° 33′ E.

Kharsáwán.—One of the petty States in Singbhúm District, Chutiá Nágpur, under the Government of Bengal. Situated between 22° 41′ and 22° 53′ 30″ N. lat., and between 85° 40′ 30″ and 85° 57′ 15″ E. long. The Thákur or chief, Raghunáth Singh Deo, is a Hindu Rájput. Area, 145 square miles; number of villages, 255; houses, 5622. Total population (1872) 26,280; (1881) 31,127, namely, males 15,496, and females 15,631; average density, 215 persons per square mile. Hindus numbered 30,834, and Muhammadans, 293. Annual revenue, £1800. This State, with others in Chutiá Nágpur, was ceded to the British by the Maráthás. The chief is under engagements binding him to right administration, and his decisions in serious cases are subject to appeal to the Commissioner of Chutiá Nágpur. Kharsáwán village is situated in lat. 24° 47′ 30″ N., long. 85° 52′ 20″ E.

Kharshán.—Village in Dárjíling District, Bengal.—*See* KARSIANG.

Kharsi Jhalária (*Kharsia*).—Guaranteed Thákurate under the Indore Agency, Central India. There are two Thákurs, Balwant Singh and Datar Singh, cousins, owning this estate (the family being divided into two branches), who receive allowances (*tankhás*) from Sindhia (Gwalior) and Dewás State, under two joint *sanads* from those States. The first Thákurs to whom the guarantee was given were Swarúp Singh and Fatah Singh. The *tankhá* from Sindhia amounts to £175, and that from Dewás State to £22. Area, about 10 square miles.

Kharsuá.—River of Orissa, rising in the Tributary States, and flowing south-eastwards through Cuttack District till it falls into the left bank of the BRAHMANI river, a short distance above the point where the combined waters of the BAITARANI and BRAHMANI fall into the Bay of Bengal as the DHAMRA estuary.

Kharturí.—Town in Champáran District, Bengal. Lat. 26° 40′ 15″ N., long. 85° 5′ 45″ E. Population (1872) 6207. Not separately returned in the Census Report of 1881.

Khasaura.—Town in Bilgrám *tahsíl*, Hardoi District, Oudh; situated on the left bank of the Rámgangá, 12 miles north-west of Sándi, on the road to Farukhábád. A well-to-do Ahír village of (1881) 2520 inhabitants, residing in 351 mud houses. Bi-weekly market.

Khási and Jaintia Hills.—District in the Chief Commissionership of Assam; situated between 25° 1′ and 26° 5′ N. lat., and between 90° 47′ and 92° 52′ E. long. It contains an area of 6157 square miles, with a population, according to the Census of 1881, of 169,360 souls. The administrative head-quarters are at the station of SHILLONG, which is also the residence of the Chief Commissioner of Assam, situated in 25° 32′ 39″ N. lat., and 91° 55′ 32″ E. long.

The Khási and Jaintia Hills form the central section of the watershed between the valleys of the Brahmaputra and the Surma. On the north the District is bounded by Kámrúp and Nowgong (Naugáon); east by the Nowgong (Naugáon) and Cachar Districts; south by Sylhet; and west by the Gáro Hills. The District is divided into three portions, namely, British possessions in the Khási Hills; petty dependent democratic States in the Khási Hills, presided over by elected chiefs known as Siems, Wáhadádárs, Sardárs, and Lyngdohs; and the Jaintia Hill country, which is entirely British territory.

The British possessions in the Khási and Jaintia Hills, which cover an aggregate area of 2160 square miles, consist of the following Fiscal Divisions:—In the Khási Hills—(1) Jim-mang; (2) Láit-lynkot; (3) Láit-kroh; (4) Bái-rang, otherwise Wáh-long; (5) Long-ká-ding; (6) Máo-be-lár-kár; (7) Máo-smái; (8) Mynteng; (9) Máo-mlúh; (10) Máo-pun-kyr-tiang; (11) Nong-jírí; (12) Nong-lyng-kin; (13) Nong-bah; (14) Nong-riát; (15) Nong-kroh; (16) Nun-niah; (17) Rám-dáit; (18) Sáit-soh-pen; (19) Tyng-riang; (20) Tyng-rong; (21) Tyr-ná; (22) Um-niuh; (23) Mar-bisu (dependency); and (24) U Tyma. In the Jaintia Hills—(1) Am-wi; (2) Chap-duk (Kukí); (3) Dar-rang; (4) Jowái; (5) Lang-flút; (6) Lang-soh; (7) Lá ká-dong; (8) Myn-riang (Míkír); (9) Mul-shoi (Kukí); (10) Más-kút; (11) Myn-sáo; (12) Nong-klih; (13) Nong-fúlút; (14) Nong-thá-long; (15) Nar-pú; (16) Nar-tiang; (17) Nong-bah; (18) Nong-jyngi; (19) Ral-liang; (20) Rym-bái; (21) Sái-pung (Kukí); (22) Soh-tyngah; (23) Shiliang-myn-tang; (24) Sáth-pathor; and (25) Shang-púng.

The Khási democratic States, covering an aggregate area of 3997 square miles (in some reports stated at 4490 square miles), are as follow:—Presided over by Siems—(1) Bhawál, otherwise War-bah; (2) Cherrá; (3) Khyrim; (4) Lang-kin; (5) Malái-soh-mat; (6) Mahárám; (7) Máriao; (8) Máo-iong; (9) Máo-syn-rám; (10) Mylliem; (11) Nong-soh-phoh; (12) Nong-khlao; (13) Nongs-pung; (14) Nong-stoin; and (15) Rám-brái. Presided over by Wáhadádárs—(1) The Confederacy of Shellá. Presided over by Sardárs—(1) Dwárá Nong-tyr-men; (2) Ji-rang; (3) Máolong; (4) Máo-don; and (5) Nong-long. Presided over by Langdohs—(1) Lan-iong; (2) Máo-phlang; (3) Nong-lywái; and (4) Soh-iong.

History.—In history, as in administration, the Khási Hills and the Jaintia Hills constitute two separate tracts. The Khási Hills are occupied by a collection of States, each governed by an elective ruler, on democratic principles. The chiefs or *siems* have treaties or agreements with the British Government, and their territories (*vide* Act xxii. of 1869, section 9) are held not to be parts of British India. They resemble the petty States in the neighbourhood of Simla, and are in so-called 'political' relations with the District officer. Heinous offences

are tried by him, civil cases and minor offences being decided by the courts of the States. Besides the territories of the *siems*, however, there are several villages in the Khási Hills which are purely British, acquired either by cession, conquest, or voluntary transfer of allegiance. The JAINTIA HILLS, on the other hand, are purely British territory, being that portion of the dominions of the Rájá of Jaintia annexed in 1835, which it was not found convenient to incorporate with the District of Sylhet.

When the East India Company acquired the *diwání* of Bengal in 1765, Sylhet was the frontier District towards the north-east. All beyond was occupied by wild tribes, who had never acknowledged subjection to the Muhammadans. Among these the Khásis early attracted attention. By their language and other characteristics, they stand out in marked contrast to the various peoples by whom they are surrounded. Securely perched on the plateaux of their native hills, they have preserved a political constitution to which there is no analogy in the rest of India. But it was not to scientific inquirers that they first became an object of curiosity. They possess, on the southern slopes of their mountains, a rich abundance of natural products, which at an early date attracted European enterprise. From time immemorial, Bengal has drawn its supply of limestone, lime, and oranges from the Khási Hills. Potatoes, an article of export now hardly second to lime, were introduced in 1830 by the first British Agent, Mr. Scott. Coal and iron are found in many places, both of excellent quality; but the expense of transport prevents the coal from being utilized, and the greater cheapness of English iron has gradually overcome the old reputation of the Khásis as iron smelters.

Even in the last century, the large profits to be obtained from the trade in lime, known at Calcutta by the name of 'Sylhet lime,' had brought the English officers stationed at Sylhet into contact with the Khásis. In 1826, the chief of Nong-khlao, one of the principal of the Khási States, entered into an agreement with certain European British subjects to allow a road to be made across the hills, to connect the Surmá valley with Assam Proper. Several Europeans took up their residence at Nong-khlao. Unfortunately, misunderstandings arose, and the growing discontent was fanned into a flame by the misconduct of some of their Bengálí followers. On the 4th April 1829, the Khásis rose in arms and massacred Lieutenants Bedingfield and Burlton, together with some sepoys. This led to military operations on the part of the British Government, which were protracted through several cold seasons. The last of the Khási chiefs did not tender his submission till 1833. From 1835 to 1854, Colonel Lister was Political Agent in the Khási Hills, with his head-quarters at Nong-khlao, subsequently moved to Cherra Púnjí.

The inhabitants of the JAINTIA HILLS, who call themselves Panárs,

and are called Santengs or Syntengs by the Khásis, have a less interesting history. They first became British subjects in 1835. In that year, the last Rájá of Jaintia, Rájendra Singh, was deposed on the charge of complicity with certain of his tribesmen who had carried off three British subjects from Nowgong District, and barbarously immolated them at a shrine of Kálí. That portion of his territory lying in the plains was incorporated with the District of Sylhet; and the Rájá voluntarily resigned the hill portion, of which also we took possession. The indigenous revenue system was continued, consisting simply of the payment of a he-goat once a year from each village. In 1860, however, a house-tax was imposed, the highest limit of which was 1 rupee (2s.) per house. This measure of direct taxation was very obnoxious to the Santengs, and it led to outbreaks, which had to be suppressed by force.

In the following year, fresh taxation was introduced in the shape of judicial stamps, the schedules of the income-tax, and imposts upon fisheries and wood-cutting. The absence of any resident European officer, and the injudicious acts of certain subordinates, precipitated a general insurrection. In January 1862, the *tháná* or police station of Jowái was burnt to the ground; the garrison of sepoys was besieged, and all show of British authority was quickly swept away throughout the hills. The Santengs fought bravely for their independence, and at first were successful in cutting off several small detachments of police and sepoys. Their only weapons were bows and arrows. Their defences consisted of a series of strong stockades, the pathways leading to which were thickly planted with *pánjís* or little bamboo spikes. At last it was found necessary to move regular troops into the country. The military operations were tedious and harassing. The rebel chiefs were captured one by one, and the District was declared to be finally pacified in March 1863, after the rebellion had lasted for fifteen months. Various measures of improvement were introduced into the administration, and the Santengs, like the Khásis, have ever since remained peaceable and contented.

Physical Aspects.—The District consists of a succession of plateaux, deeply furrowed by the action of streams, and rising in shelves from one level to another. On the southern side, towards Sylhet, the mountains rise precipitously from the valley of the BARAK. The first plateau is met with at the height of about 4000 feet above sea-level. Farther north is another plateau, on which is situated the station of Shillong, 4900 feet above the sea; behind lies the Shillong range, of which the highest peak rises to 6449 feet. On the north side, towards Kámrúp, are two similar plateaux of lower elevation. The general appearance of all these table-lands is that of undulating downs, covered with grass, but destitute of large timber.

On the whole, the Khási Hills are remarkable for the absence of forest. At an elevation of 3000 feet, the indigenous pine (Pinus kasia) predominates over all other vegetation, and forms almost pure pine forests. The highest peaks are clothed with magnificent clumps of timber trees, which superstition has preserved from the axe of the woodcutter. The characteristic trees in these sacred groves are those of a temperate zone, chiefly consisting of oaks, chestnuts, magnolias, etc. Beneath the shade grow rare orchids, rhododendrons, and wild cinnamon. The streams that find their way through the hills are merely mountain torrents, navigable by canoes only in their lower reaches. As they approach the plains, they form rapids and cascades, and many of them pass through narrow gorges of wild beauty.

The forests are too scanty to furnish any considerable source of revenue. The total area of 'unreserved forest,' *i.e.* land covered with timber trees and not at present required for *júm* cultivation, is only 150 square miles. Besides a small forest area in the vicinity of Shillong, 36 tracts are reserved in the Khási, and 21 in the Jaintia Hills. An experimental cinchona plantation was established near Nong-khlao, but has now been abandoned.

The natural wealth of the Khási Hills is confined to the limestone quarries along the southern slope. From time immemorial, Bengal has drawn its supply of lime from this source, and the quarries are literally inexhaustible. In 1881–82, the total export of lime was 1,598,117 *maunds*, valued at £27,943. The revenue derived by Government was £3837, and the native chiefs received in addition over £600. The quarries are chiefly situated in the beds and on the banks of rivers; and the stone is transported by water to the Surmá, where it is either at once calcined or placed in the lump upon larger vessels for shipment to Bengal.

Coal of excellent quality crops out at Cherra Púnjí, Lá-ká-dong, Laur, and several other places; but owing to difficulty of transport and the high price of labour, these deposits have never yet been remuneratively worked. Iron-ore, in the shape of crystals of magnetic iron, is found in the decomposed granite of the central axis of the hills. These are separated from the lighter elements of the stone by the action of water, and reduced with the help of charcoal. In former days the Khásis were renowned as smelters of iron. Recently, however, the cheapness of the iron imported from England has almost succeeded in driving the native commodity out of the market.

Among other natural products may be mentioned beeswax, lac, and caoutchouc. Wild animals of all kinds abound, including elephants, rhinoceros, tigers, buffaloes, *mithuns* or wild cows, and many varieties of deer. The rivers swarm with fish; the *máhsir* especially is excellent both for sport and for the table.

Natural Phenomena.—Many peculiar caves and caverns are found in the limestone rock formation, the most notable being the caves at Cherra Púnjí and at Rúpnáth in Amwi. At the latter place the caverns extend a great distance beneath the earth, one being imagined by the people to reach as far as China, and a Hindu legend states that a Chinese army once marched by this route to the invasion of India. In another cave, the limestone stalactites have been carved into images representing the gods of the Hindu pantheon. On the banks of the Kapilí river on the Cachar border, at a place called Sumir, there is a hot spring, the water of which contains carbonate of lime.

The People.—No early estimates of the population exist. In 1881, an enumeration was taken mainly through the agency of the native chiefs. The results show a total population in the Khási and Jaintia Hills of 169,360 persons, dwelling in 1546 villages and in 35,048 houses. These figures give an average of 27·5 persons per square mile, 109 persons per village, and 4·83 persons per house. Divided according to sex, there are 80,543 males and 88,817 females; proportion of males, 47·55 per cent. Divided according to age, there are, under 15 years, 33,986 boys and 33,709 girls; total children, 67,695, or 39·97 per cent. of the population. The religious classification of the people shows 160,976 aborigines, 5692 Hindus, 570 Muhammadans, 15 Brahmos, and 2107 Christians, including 212 Europeans and Eurasians, and 1895 native converts.

As is clearly shown by the above figures, the two races of Khásis and Santengs have succeeded in preserving to the present day their primitive isolation, free from the interference of Hinduism. They still maintain their indigenous forms of belief and religious worship, and repudiate alike the authority of Bráhmans and the entire system of caste. They have in the Jaintia Hills given way somewhat to Hindu prejudices so far as regards purity of food. The comparatively few Hindus to be found in the hills either belong to the regiments as soldiers and camp followers, or are attached in some capacity to the Government offices, or are private servants. Some of the local traders, too, are Hindus from other parts of India. There is no emigration, except in the case of the labourers who proceed southward every year to work on the tea-gardens in Cachar and Sylhet.

The Khásis occupy a position of isolation among the hill tribes by whom they are surrounded, in language, national characteristics, and political institutions. From the point of view of ethnology, they are commonly classed with the neighbouring Santengs, Gáros, Nágás, Cacharis, etc., as a sub-division of the Indo-Chinese branch of the human family. Their physiognomy, colour, and physical appearance would place them among these tribes; but their language has no

analogy elsewhere in the whole of India. It has been described as 'monosyllabic in the agglutinative stage.' The greater number of the words used are monosyllabic roots; the compounds are mere juxtapositions of these roots. The Khásis have no written character or literature, but traditions abound. The missionaries use school-books printed in the Roman character, into which the Old and New Testaments, and several religious and other books have been transliterated. The Khási political organization consists of a number of petty States or democracies, presided over by elective chiefs. The Hindu village community, the hereditary Rájá of some neighbouring States, and the military general of others, are alike unknown to them.

The most curious of their social customs is the importance attached to female descent and female authority. The husband marries into the wife's family, the wife or her mother being regarded as the head of the household. Property brought by the husband to the wife's house reverts to his own family at his death, being, together with his ashes after cremation, made over by his widow and children to the youngest sister of the deceased, who inherits all ancestral property, and property acquired previous to marriage. Property acquired during wedlock goes at the death of the husband to the widow and children, but this custom varies in different parts of the country, the inhabitants of the southern slopes and valleys recognising no difference between property acquired previous to or after marriage. Children here inherit all property. If there are no children, the property goes, on the death of the husband, to the nearest of kin who performed the funeral obsequies. Relatives who do not join in the performance of such ceremonies do not share. If the children are minors, and incapable of performing the funeral ceremonies, the property becomes temporarily alienated to the relatives who perform the same, but passes to the children when grown up, on payment of the expenses incurred by the relatives.

The Khásis still maintain their aboriginal forms of belief, and repudiate alike the authority of Bráhmans, and the entire system of caste. To some extent, however, they have given way to Hindu prejudices in the matter of purity of food. The ashes of the dead are buried under cromlechs or dolmens, consisting of four upright slabs of stones covered over by a fifth slab. [A fuller account of the Khási tribe will be found in Colonel Dalton's *Ethnology of Bengal*, pp. 54–58 (Calcutta, 1872), and in the *Statistical Account of Assam*, vol. ii. pp. 215–220 (London, Trübner & Co., 1879).]

Condition of the People.—Both Khásis and Santengs are a prosperous people. Adult males earn as much as a shilling a day as common labourers, and adult females as much as eightpence. The dwellings of the well-to-do classes are generally constructed of masonry, with a

thatched roof and a plank floor, and divided into two or three rooms. The furniture consists of a rough bedstead, a seat or two, some cooking utensils, and a few boxes. The ordinary peasants and poorer classes construct their huts of stone, mud or plank walls, with a thatch or cane roof. They are fitted with wooden platforms or loose planks placed on the ground to serve as beds.

The food of the well-to-do classes consists of rice, fish, fowl, or meat, curry, vegetables, oil, hog's lard, and fermented or spirituous liquor; the expenses of an average-sized household being estimated at about £2, 10s. per month. An ordinary husbandman or labourer lives on rice, dry fish, occasionally a little meat, oil, or hog's lard; the estimated cost of living for an averaged-sized household being about 16s. per month. The few Hindus found in the hills are mere temporary residents, engaged in civil and military employ, who always contemplate returning to their own homes. The traders are for the most part natives of the hills; for the Márwárí merchants, who penetrate into every other corner of Assam, have been able to obtain no footing here in the face of Khási competition.

The only places in the Khási and Jaintia Hills larger than villages are the two British stations of SHILLONG and JOWAI, and the native towns of CHERRA PUNJI and SHELLA PUNJI. Cherra Púnjí was the chief civil station in the District until 1864, and it is still the centre of the operations of the Welsh Calvinistic Mission. In 1864, the District head-quarters were removed to Shillong, which was selected in 1874 as the permanent seat of the local government of Assam. According to the enumeration of 1881, Shillong then contained 3640 inhabitants. A good cart-road was opened up between Gauhátí in the Brahmaputra valley and Shillong a few years ago, afterwards extended to Cherra Púnjí, to which place it was opened throughout in January 1883. Large sums of money have also been expended on the erection of public buildings in Shillong. Sanitation is carefully attended to, and an excellent supply of water is conveyed into the town by means of an aqueduct. A project for the supply of a perfectly pure drinking supply to the station was completed in 1883 from a stream running from the high range behind it. Such a supply has also been provided for the cantonments, and for the fast-growing Khási suburb of Máokhor, which lies to the north of the civil station. Shillong is now supplied with as pure and abundant a water-supply as any station in India. Jowái is the residence of the Assistant Commissioner of the Jaintia Hills.

Agriculture.—The chief cereal crop cultivated by the Khásis is rice, but even of this they do not grow sufficient for their own consumption. The rice crop is cultivated in two ways—(1) on low marshy land, which can be regularly irrigated by means of artificial channels cut from the

adjoining hill streams; (2) on high lands, where the grass and low jungle have been previously cut down and burned on the spot. Other crops grown for food are Indian corn, millet, 'Job's tears,' pulses, and an esculent tuberous root called *soh-phlang*, resembling a small potato. *Pán* or betel-leaf and *supári* or betel-nut are largely grown, both for consumption and export. The following four crops are cultivated in large quantities, chiefly for exportation to Bengal:—(1) Potatoes, (2) oranges, (3) pine-apples, (4) *tezpát* or bay-leaves. Sugar-cane is grown in some places, and cotton in the lower hills towards the Brahmaputra valley. Potatoes were first introduced into the hills in 1830. In 1876-77, the export of potatoes was estimated at 7480 tons, valued at £50,125. Orange, limes, and pine-apples are grown to great perfection on the southern slopes of the hills, whence Calcutta draws its supply of these fruits. In 1876-77, the export of oranges was valued at £3760, and of pine-apples at £800.

In the Jaintia Hills the use of the plough is common, but in the Khási Hills no agricultural implement is to be seen except the hoe. Manure in the form of cow-dung is generally used for rice and potatoes. Irrigation is regularly practised, the water being brought to the land by means of channels cut from the numerous hill streams in the neighbourhood of the fields. Wells and tanks are unknown. The total area under cultivation is estimated at only 302 square miles, but an additional 3882 square miles are cultivable. The principal crops are thus distributed—rice, 59,880 acres; other food-grains, 57,820 acres; potatoes, 33,880 acres; cotton, 1076 acres; tea, 224 acres. The average out-turn per acre is returned at 6 cwt. of rice, 2 cwt. of other food-grains, 40 cwt. of potatoes, and 1½ cwt. of cotton. The relations of landlord and tenant do not exist throughout the hills. The land is the absolute property of the cultivators, who occupy and cultivate their hereditary lands, and who pay no rent or revenue either to the British Government or to their own chiefs. Natural calamities, such as blight, flood, or drought, are almost unknown, and have never occurred on such a scale as to affect the general harvest. The price of rice is directly determined by the rates ruling in the neighbouring markets of Sylhet and Kámrúp, from which the larger portion of the food supply is drawn.

Commerce, etc.—The trade of the Khási Hills is very considerable. This tract possesses almost a monopoly of certain valuable products; and the natives, who are notoriously keen at a bargain, retain all the profits in their own hands. According to estimates carefully compiled by the Deputy Commissioner, the exports in 1876-77 were valued at £160,000, chiefly potatoes, limestone, cotton, stick-lac, *tezpát* or bay-leaves, oranges, betel-nuts, and betel-leaves. The imports were valued at £157,000, chiefly rice, dry fish, cotton, cloth, salt, wheat-flour,

tobacco, oil, and *ghí*. By far the greater portion of the trade is conducted at a row of markets along the southern foot of the hills, of which Chhátak on the Surmá, in Sylhet District, is the most important. The trade on the Kámrúp side is comparatively small, except for the importation of rice.

The chief means of communication in the District is the road opened in 1877 for wheeled traffic from Gauhátí to Shillong, on the Brahmaputra. This road is 64 miles in length, and its construction is described as a model of engineering skill. It has since been extended to Cherra Púnjí, a further distance of about 30 miles, and is open for wheeled traffic throughout. There are seven other roads through the hills, maintained at the public expense. These are—(1) Shillong to Sohrarim *viâ* Laitlyngkot; (2) Shillong to Jowái; (3) Jowái to Jaintiapur; (4) Jowái to Nurtiang; (5) Shillong to Sympur; (6) Shillong to Nongstoin; (7) Maophlang to Jirang *viâ* Nong-khlao. The manufactures of the District are insignificant. Besides a decaying business in iron-smelting, they comprise coarse cotton and *randia* cloth, plain silver-work, rude implements of husbandry, netted bags made of pine-apple fibre, common pottery, mats, and baskets.

Administration.—The Khási and Jaintia Hills constitute a Political Agency, independent of the ordinary jurisdiction. The British territory, which consists of the whole of the Jaintia Hills, the stations of Shillong and Cherra Púnjí, and a number of villages in the Khási Hills, is administered under a special code by the Deputy Commissioner and his Assistants. The Khási petty States, 25 in number, are presided over by elective chiefs, variously styled Seims, Wáhadádárs, Sardárs, and Langdohs. These chiefs have jurisdiction over their own subjects in all cases except homicide. The British Government undertakes the management of the natural products of the country, such as lime, coal, timber, and elephants, and pays over to the chiefs a half share of the profits. Their other sources of revenue are market dues, court fines, and various cesses. Their aggregate income is approximately estimated at £3200, of which about £600 is derived from lime quarries.

In 1881–82, the total revenue of the District to the British Government amounted to £10,700, of which the larger portion came from royalties on lime quarries and the house-tax; the expenditure in the same year was £10,917. The house-tax is levied throughout the Jaintia Hills, and from the British villages in the Khási Hills, at the rate of 2s. or 4s. per house; in 1881–82, the total realized was £1660. The land-tax is applied to some petty holdings in the Jaintia Hills, a few building sites at Jowái and Cherra Púnjí, and the waste land grants at the foot of the Jaintia Hills towards Sylhet; the total is only £197 a year, derived from 34 estates. In 1881–82, there were 4 magisterial

and 3 civil courts in the District, and 2 European officers. The head-quarters of a regiment of Assam Light Infantry are stationed at Shillong, with an outpost at Jowái. For police purposes, the District is divided into 3 *thánás* or police circles, with 2 outposts. In 1881, the regular police force numbered 168 men of all ranks, maintained at a total cost of £2854. These figures show 1 policeman to every 36·68 square miles of area, or to every 1008 persons of the population; the cost being 9s. 3d. per square mile and 4d. per head. The administration of justice is mainly conducted in criminal cases by the petty chiefs, and in civil cases before *pancháyats* or indigenous courts of arbitration; only heinous crimes or important suits are referred to the British officers. In 1881, the number of offences reported was 172; the number of persons tried was 180, of whom 132 or 73·34 per cent. were convicted. The civil cases tried before the courts numbered 101. There is a jail at Shillong. In 1881, the daily average number of prisoners was 43·28, of whom 2·70 were females. The total expenditure was £732, or an average of £15, 18s. for each prisoner.

The management of education in the Khási and Jaintia Hills is chiefly in the hands of the Welsh Calvinistic Mission, whose efforts have been rewarded by most satisfactory results. In 1874–75, the total number of schools open in the District was 73, attended by 1666 pupils, which by 1881–82 had increased to 107 schools, attended by 2551 pupils, being 1 school to every 57 square miles, and 1 pupil to every 66 inhabitants. The total expenditure on education in the latter year was £3806, towards which Government contributed £1586; the average cost per pupil was £1, 9s. 10d. English is taught in 46 schools out of the 107. The Normal School for higher instruction was attended by 44 pupils, of whom 9 were girls. The number of girls attending school increased from 344 in 1874–75 to 742 in 1881, showing 8·35 pupils to every thousand of the female population.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of the Khási and Jaintia Hills is mild and equable, though in some parts excessively humid. At Shillong, the thermometer rarely exceeds 80° F., and has been known to fall to 38°. Hoar frost lies on the ground almost every morning during the months of December, January, and February. Shallow water occasionally freezes over, but snow never falls. The rainfall at Cherra Púnjí is enormous. The average during the 25 years ending 1881 is returned at 489 inches; and 805 inches are said to have fallen in 1861, including 366 inches in the single month of July. At Shillong, where the clouds rolling up from the plains of Bengal have already spent their force on three intervening ridges, the annual rainfall declines to an average of about 88 inches; and at Jowái, which occupies an intermediate position, the average is 362 inches. The rainy season is confined to the five months from May to November. The District is liable to

shocks of earthquake, one of which, in 1875, did much damage to the houses in Shillong.

Generally speaking, the climate of the hills is healthy, both for natives and Europeans. Malarious fevers do not exist, except in the marshy strip or *tarái* on the northern frontier. Cholera never prevails, unless directly imported from the plains. The chief diseases are fevers of a typhoid character, or at least engendered by insanitary conditions of life; small-pox, dysentery, and bowel complaints. Europeans on first arriving at Shillong frequently suffer from disorders of the liver; but afterwards enjoy excellent health, when they have once passed through a short period of acclimatizing indisposition. European children thrive remarkably. Except in the case of Shillong, no regard is paid to the requirements of conservancy in any Khási village. The collection of vital statistics was commenced in the District in 1882 in certain representative areas. The charitable dispensary at Shillong was attended in 1881 by 101 in-door and 1133 out-door patients. The total expenditure was £306, towards which Government contributed £120. [For further information regarding the Khási and Jaintia Hills, see the *Statistical Account of Assam*, vol. ii. pp. 203–255 (London, Trübner & Co., 1879). Also *Memorandum on the Revenue Administration of the Lower Provinces of Bengal*, by D. J. M'Neill, Esq., 1873, p. 33; the *Assam Census Report* for 1881; and the several Administration and Departmental Reports from 1880 to 1884.]

Khasor.—Range of hills in Dera Ismáil Khán District, Punjab.—*See* KHISOR.

Khatak Hills.—A range or series of ranges in Kohát and Peshávar District, Punjab; so called from the Afghán tribe who inhabit them. They bound Pesháwar District to the south, and extend from the Sufed Koh system to the Indus. In Kohát they consist of an intricate network of barren and almost perpendicular ridges, intersected by deep valleys, whose sides are clothed with jungle and scored by innumerable ravines. Patches of cultivation, however, nestle in the open glades, while occasional clumps of acacia and wild olive relieve the sterile monotony of the bare gorges. The Teri Toi river divides the system into two main groups, the southern of which contains the famous salt mines of Narri, Bahádur Khel, and Kharrak; while the mines of Malgin and Jatta lie among the spurs of the northern range. The peaks of the south-eastern group seldom exceed 3000 feet; but Swánai Sír, in the opposite range, has an elevation of 4785 feet above sea-level.

The salt, which gives these mountains their chief importance, occurs as a solid rock, uncovered and exposed in many places, so as to be quarried rather than mined. The deposit may probably rank as one of the largest in the world. It has a bluish-grey colour,

but grinds white. Large quantities are exported to the Punjab towns, to Afghánistán, and to the surrounding countries generally. The Government Preventive Establishment consisted in 1872 of 204 persons, maintained at a total annual cost of £1678. The total quantity of salt extracted from the five mines in 1870–71 amounted to 407,098 *maunds*, and the duty realized was £8556. In 1882–83, the annual out-turn was returned at 416,616 *maunds*. The head-quarters of the salt establishment are at Jatta.

The Khatak hills on the border of Peshávar District have an average height of about 3000 feet above sea-level, but the highest peak, that of Jawála Sír, close to the sanitarium of CHARAT, reaches an elevation of 5110 feet. The celebrated shrine of Káká Sáhib is situated in Pesháwar District, at the foot of these hills, and forms the head-quarters of the powerful clan of Káká Khels, descendants of Shaikh Ráhim Kár, a Khatak. They are venerated by the other inhabitants as holy men, and travel to all parts of Central Asia as traders. The Mír Kalán pass runs through these hills, and a wide road has been made for military purposes. A bungalow is situated on the Kohát side. Slate is found in considerable quantities at the foot of the hills.

Khatáo.—Sub-division of Sátára District, Bombay Presidency. Area, 497 square miles; number of villages, 84. Population (1872) 66,104; (1881) 74,027, namely, 36,839 males and 37,188 females. Hindus numbered 71,327; Muhammadans, 2072; and 'others,' 628. Contains 1 civil and 2 criminal courts; police station (*thána*), 1; regular police, 56 men; village watchmen, 214. Land revenue, £15,490.

Khátauli.—Commercial town in Jánsath *tahsíl*, Muzaffarnagar District, North-Western Provinces. Distant from Muzaffarnagar town 13⅛ miles south. Lat. 29° 17′ N., long. 77° 46′ 10″ E. Population (1872) 6409; (1881) 7574, namely, 3342 Hindus, 3601 Muhammadans, 628 Jains, and 3 Christians. Area of town site, 76 acres. Khátauli is a place of increasing importance as a mart for the exchange of country produce, and is a station on the Sind, Punjab, and Delhi Railway. There are four Jain temples, and the Jain inhabitants are thriving grain dealers. It contains a good *bázár*, with a well-paved road; good communications with the surrounding country. For police and sanitary purposes, a house-tax is levied. Police station, post-office, school, and encamping ground.

Khátmándu (*Káthmándú*).—Capital of the Native State of Nepál; situated towards the western side of the valley, about a mile from the base of Mount Nagarjun, standing on the east bank of the Vishnumati river at its junction with the Bághmatí; approximate latitude 27° 42′ N., longitude 85° 12′ E. The population is estimated by the State authorities at 50,000, occupying about 5000 houses, which are usually from two to four storeys high, made of brick, and tiled or (in the suburbs)

thatched; many houses possess large projecting wooden windows or balconies, often richly carved. The majority of the inhabitants belong to the Newar class, half of whom are Buddhists. The Gúrkhas form but an inconsiderable minority. There are many small open spaces in various parts of the town, paved, like the streets, with brick and stone; in these the markets are held, and Dr. Wright (*History of Nepál*, 1877) notices that in the mornings these places are quite gay with the flowers, fruit, and vegetables exposed for sale. The general shape of the city is very irregular, but it is said by the Hindus to resemble the *khora* or sword of the goddess Deví, while the Buddhist Newars declare it to have been built after the shape of the sword of the great founder of the city, Manjúsri. They state that the handle or blunt extremity of this traditionary sword is directed to the south, towards the confluence of the Bághmatí and Vishnumati rivers, while its apex points to the north, where it terminates in the suburb of Timmále, which stretches round or rests upon it as the *chhattra* or cloth does upon the point of Manjúsri's sword. Khátmándu is said to have been founded by Rájá Gunakámadeva about A.D. 723.

The greatest length of the city from north to south is about a mile, and its breadth varies from one-fourth to one-third of a mile. The Vishnumati is crossed by two masonry bridges, over one of which runs the road from the city to the arsenal and parade-ground, and over the other the direct road to the temple of Shámbunáth. The earliest name by which the city was known was Manju Patan, after Manjúsri, its traditional founder. Its modern name is said to be derived from an ancient building which stands in the heart of the city near the royal palace, and which is still known among the Newars as Káthmándú, from *káth*, 'wood' (of which material it is chiefly composed), and *mandi* or *mandon*, an 'edifice,' 'house,' or 'temple.' This building was erected by Rájá Lachmina Singh Mal, A.D. 1596, not as a temple (though there are some figures of Siva inside it), but as a house of accommodation for religious mendicants, and it has always been used for that purpose. The walls of the city have been allowed to fall into decay, and in many places are now hardly distinguishable. Many of the gateways, of which there were thirty-two, are still standing, but the gates themselves have long since disappeared. There are said to be thirty-two small squares or *tolás* in the city, of which the following only are now of importance: Assan *tolá*, Indra Chauk, Khátmándu, Toba *tolá*, Laghan *tolá*, and the square in front of the *Darbár* or royal palace.

The *Darbár* covers a considerable extent of ground, in the form of an irregular quadrangle. To the north it is partly open to the city, and is flanked by the lofty Taliju temple. At the southern end is the council-chamber, the Basantpur, and the long modern

Darbár or public reception room. On the east it encloses the royal garden and stables, and on the west, which is its principal front, it is open to the street, and forms one side of a rambling irregular square, in which are clustered together a number of Hindu temples, originally built by the Newars. Opposite the north-west corner of the *Darbár* is the Kót, or military council-chamber, in which was enacted the massacre of 1846. The Kot-ling, Dhunsar, and other courts of law are also situated around the western front of the *Darbár*. Several of the Sardárs have, during the last few years, built large houses in different parts of the city, which, from their imposing appearance, contrast very strongly with the humble and dirty Newar dwellings in their neighbourhood.

Dr. Wright gives the following description of the chief objects of interest at Khátmándu:—

'In the centre of the town stands the Mahárájá's palace, which is a huge, rambling, ungainly building. Part of it is very old, built in pagoda fashion, and covered with elaborate and grotesque carvings. Other parts of it, such as the *Darbár* room, have been built within the last ten years, and possess glass windows, which are rare in Nepál, being found only in the houses of the wealthiest. In the square in front of the palace are numerous handsome temples. Many of these are like pagodas, of several storeys in height, and profusely ornamented with carvings, painting, and gilding. The roofs of many of them are entirely of brass or copper gilt, and along the eaves of the different storeys are hung numerous little bells, which tinkle in the breeze. At some of the doorways are placed a couple of large stone lions or griffins, with well-curled manes, which remind one strongly of the figures found at Nineveh.

'Another description of temple is built of stone, with pillars and a dome. Though less ornamented and less picturesque, this style is far more graceful than the other. Close to the palace, on the north, is the temple of Taliju, one of the largest of the pagoda type. It is said to have been built by Rájá Mahendra Male, about A.D. 1549. It is devoted entirely to the use of the royal family. In front of several of the temples are tall monoliths, some surmounted by figures of old Rájás, who founded the temples, others by the winged figure of Garúr. The figures are often in a kneeling posture, facing a temple, and are generally overhung by a brazen snake, on whose head is perched a little bird. Not far from the palace, and close to one of the temples, is an enormous bell, suspended to stone pillars; and in another building are two huge drums, about eight feet in diameter. The bell is sounded by pulling the tongue, but the peal is by no means what might be expected from its size. Here, too, are several huge and hideous figures of Hindu gods and goddesses,

which on festival days are dressed up and ornamented in the usual way.

'About 200 yards from the palace stands a large semi-European building, called the Kót, which is famous as being the place where, in 1846, the massacre took place of almost all the leading men of the country, by which event the [late] prime minister, Sir Jang Bahádur, was established in power.

'Besides the temples already noticed, many others are to be found in every street and lane. In fact, at a first glance, the town seems to consist of almost nothing but temples. They vary in size from the gigantic pagoda of Taliju to a diminutive shrine cut out of a single stone, with an image a few inches high in the centre. Many of them present a most repulsive appearance, being dabbled over with the blood of cocks, ducks, goats, and buffaloes, which are sacrificed before them.

'The streets of Khátmándu are very narrow—mere lanes, in fact; and the whole town is very dirty. In every lane there is a stagnant ditch full of putrid mud, and no attempt is ever made to clean these thoroughly. The streets, it is true, are swept in the centre, and part of the filth is carried off by the sellers of manure; but to clean the drains would now be impossible without knocking down the entire city, as the whole ground is saturated with filth. The houses are generally built in the form of hollow squares, opening off the streets by low doorways; and these central courtyards are too often only receptacles for rubbish of every sort. In short, from a sanitary point of view, Khátmándu may be said to be built on a dunghill in the middle of latrines!

'On leaving the town by the north-east gateway, and turning to the south, the first object one sees is a large tank, the Ránipukhri, or Queen's Tank. It is surrounded by a wall, and in the centre is a temple, united to the western bank by a long narrow brick bridge. On the south side is a large figure of an elephant, cut out of, or rather built of, stone, bearing the image of Rájá Pratápa Male, the maker of the tank, and of his Ráni. A little farther south, the road passes through an avenue of *bukáyun* (Cape lilac) trees, which runs between the city and the great parade-ground or Thandikhel. This ground is a large open space, covered with a fine greensward, and here the troops are daily drilled and exercised. In the centre used to stand a square stone building[1] about 30 feet high, erected by Sir Jang Bahádur after his return from England in 1851. On the top was a figure of Sir Jang Bahádur, holding a sword in one hand and a scroll in the other, and at the four corners were hideous brazen griffins or dragons. All these have, however, been removed to a new temple built by Sir Jang Bahádur on the bank of the Bághmatí. To the west

[1] Removed in 1882.

of the parade-ground is a more graceful object, namely the Daréra or column erected by a former prime minister, General Bhímasen Thápá. This column is beautifully proportioned, standing on a base of stone, and rising to a height of 250 feet. This is the second column of the kind that was built by Bhímasen, the first having been thrown down by a violent earthquake in 1833. The column now standing was struck by lightning in 1856, and a large rent was made all down one side. It was repaired, however, in 1869, and now looks as well as ever. There is a good winding staircase inside, and from the windows at the top a fine bird's-eye view of the town and its environs may be obtained.

'A little farther south stands the arsenal,[1] and to the east of the parade-ground are store-houses for ammunition, cannon, etc., and a manufactory where these are cast and bored. A new workshop on a larger scale has lately been built about 4 miles south of the city, on a small stream, the Nukkú, near Chaubahál.

'The road now turns to the east, and at about a mile south-east of Khátmándu it reaches Thátpatali, the residence of [the late] Sir Jang Bahádur. This is an immense building, or rather range of buildings, situated close to the northern bank of the Bághmatí, just where it is crossed by a bridge leading to Patan.'

A British Resident, with a small staff and escort, is stationed at Khátmándu. The Residency is situated about a mile out of the city on the north side, in a spot described by Dr. Wright (who was Residency Surgeon) as one of the best wooded and most beautiful in the valley, though it was originally assigned for a Residency 'because, owing to a deficient supply of water, it was a barren patch, supposed to be very unhealthy, and to be the abode of demons.'

The present minister, Sir Ranadíp Singh, has a very extensive residence at Naiainhitti, to the north-east of the city. The military force maintained in Khátmándu and its suburbs numbers about 12,000 men, in twenty infantry battalions, with 250 field-pieces, all of which are of small calibre, and many are unserviceable. There are several magazines in and about the city, filled with muskets and rifles mostly of obsolete patterns, old equipments, accoutrements, and other material of war.

Khátmándu is an open town, and is connected with the neighbouring towns of Bhátgaon, Patan, and Thankot by bridged carriage roads. There are no manufactures of any importance.

Khed (or *Kher*).—Sub-division of Ratnágiri District, Bombay Presidency. Bounded on the north by Kolába District; on the east by Sátára District; on the south by Chiplun; and on the west by Dápoli. It lies fifteen miles inland, with the Sub-division of

[1] On the completion of the Nukkú buildings this arsenal was abandoned.

Dápoli between it and the sea. Area, 400 square miles. Population (1881) 91,492, namely, 44,024 males and 47,468 females, dwelling in 146 villages, containing 17,204 houses; density of population, 228 persons to the square mile. Hindus numbered 84,116; Muhammadans, 7329; and 'others,' 47.

The Sub-division consists of a rugged and hilly surface, with patches of poor land. The north-west is much broken by ravines; in the north-east are the three lofty hills of Mahipatgarh, Sumárgarh, and Rasálgarh, detached from the range of the Sahyádris by the deep valley of the Jagbudi. Across the Sahyádris, the principal passes from the Sub-division are the Hatlot and the Ambáoli, the latter passable by pack-bullocks. The village sites alone are protected by shade-giving trees; near the villages are numerous sacred groves. The sea-breeze is but little felt. The average rainfall for ten years ending 1877 was 130·5 inches. The river Jagbudi is navigable for small craft as far as Khed, where a hot spring is found. Grain, rice, and pulses are the staple crops. In 1878, the agricultural stock consisted of—horned cattle, 36,774; sheep and goats, 2793; horses, 21; ploughs, 10,362; and carts, 33. Of the 187,949 acres under actual cultivation in 1878, grain crops occupied 98 per cent. Of the whole, rice occupied 18,794 acres, and *náchni* (Eleusine corocana) 34,700 acres. In 1884, the Sub-division contained 2 criminal courts; police stations, 3; regular police, 52 men. Land revenue (1878–79), £9262.

Khed (or *Kher*).—Town and head-quarters of the Khed Sub-division, Ratnágiri District, Bombay Presidency. Situated at the head of the Jagbudi river, and surrounded by hills. The population in 1872 was 3817. Not separately returned in the Census Report of 1881. A cart-road connects Khed with the port of Harnai, 26 miles distant. Boats of light draught work up from Dabhol and Anjanwel to Khed. Post-office, school, and rest-house for travellers. East of the town are three small rock temples, now inhabited by a family of lepers.

Khed (or *Kher*).—Sub-division of Poona District, Bombay Presidency. Area, 888 square miles. Population (1872) 139,152; (1881) 141,890, namely, 70,811 males and 71,079 females, dwelling in 244 villages, containing 24,054 houses. Density of population, 159 persons to the square mile. Hindus numbered 136,395; Muhammadans, 3601; 'others,' not specified, 1894. The Sub-division in 1884 contained 1 civil and 3 criminal courts; police stations (*thánás*), 2; regular police, 76 men; village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 156. Land revenue (1883), £15,980.

Khed (or *Kher*).—Town and municipality in Poona (Púna) District, Bombay Presidency; situated on the left bank of the river Bhíma, 26 miles north of Poona city. Lat. 18° 51′ N., long. 73° 55′ 30″ E. Population (1881) 3836; municipal revenue (1882–83), £44; municipal

expenditure, £79; incidence of municipal taxation, 3s. 3½d. Post-office and dispensary, and head-quarters of the revenue and police officers of the Sub-division. Khed has a village area of upwards of 20 square miles. Within those limits are at least three places of interest, from an architectural or archæological point of view, viz. the tomb and mosque of Diláwar Khán, and an old Hindu temple of Siddheswar, on the left bank of the Bhíma river.

Khejiri.—Village near the mouth of the Húglí river in Midnapur District, Bengal.—*See* KEDGEREE.

Khekera (or *Kahkra*).—Town in Bágpat *tahsíl*, Meerut (Merath) District, North-Western Provinces; situated 26 miles from Meerut city. Population (1865) 6045; in 1872, the population having fallen to below 5000, it was not returned separately in the Census Report; by 1881, however, the population had risen to 6972, namely, Hindus, 5715; Muhammadans, 879; and Jains, 378. Said to have been founded about 1500 years ago by Ahírs, who were subsequently ousted by Játs from Sikandarpur. Fine Jain temple; second-class police station. Large annual fair. During the Mutiny, the proprietor of the village rebelled, and his estate was confiscated and made over to some neighbouring loyal *zamíndárs*.

Khelát (*Kalát* or *Eastern Baluchistán*).—A collection of chiefships inhabited by tribes of Baluchís, acknowledging subordination to the Khán of Khelát, who is the ruler of BALUCHISTAN (*q.v.*).

Khelát (*Kalát*).—Chief town of the territories of the Khán of Khelát, in Baluchistán; situated on the northern spur of a limestone hill called the Sháh Mardán. Lat. 28° 53′ N., long. 66° 28′ E. It is about 6783 feet above sea-level, and has, in consequence, a temperate climate approximating to places situate in much higher latitudes. Khelát is a fortified town built in terraces, and has three gates, known as the Kháni, Mastúng, and Belái—the two latter named, no doubt, from the roads leading to Mastúng and Belá, which pass through them. The streets are extremely narrow, tortuous, and dirty. The walls are built of mud, with bastions at intervals; and both walls and bastions are said to be pierced with numerous loopholes for musketry. Only a few guns are mounted on them. The *bázár* of Khelát is reported to be large and well supplied with all kinds of necessaries; and the town itself is furnished with very clear and pure water from a stream which rises in the base of a limestone hill on the eastern side of the valley. The *miri*, or old fort, now forms the palace of the Khán, and overhangs the town. It consists of a confused mass of buildings closely crowded together. Cook says it is an imposing and antique structure, and probably the most ancient edifice in Baluchistán, owing its foundation to the Hindu kings who preceded the present Muhammadan dynasty. From the *Darbár* or

grand reception room in this building, which has an open balcony, a most extensive view is obtained, embracing the whole valley and surrounding hills.

Khelát has two suburbs, the one on the west and the other on the east side. They would appear to be extensive, and it is here that the Bábi portion of the community reside. The number of houses, according to Bellew, is 3500, which would imply a population of about 14,000 persons; but this no doubt includes the suburbs. Masson states the total number of houses to have been, in his time, only 1100, which would give probably not more than between 4000 and 5000 inhabitants in all; but he has nevertheless estimated the population of Khelát and its environs at 14,000, which would thus show Bellew's calculation to be correct. The town of Khelát is inhabited by Brahúis, Hindus, Dehwárs, and Bábis or Afgháns, the latter residing chiefly, as has previously been stated, in the suburbs. The Brahúis form the great bulk of the inhabitants; but the cultivation is chiefly carried on by the Dehwár communities. There are several villages and walled gardens clustered together in the valley east of the town; of these, Siálkoh is one of the largest, having about 100 houses, or, say, 450 inhabitants. The trade and manufactures of Khelát are in every way slight and unimportant. Sir Frederick Goldsmid, whose opinion merits the highest consideration, prefers rendering the name as *Kalát*.—*See* BALUCHISTAN.

Khem Karn. — Town and municipality in Kasúr *tahsíl*, Lahore District, Punjab; 7 miles from Kasúr town, with which place it is connected by a metalled road. Lat. 31° 9′ N., long. 74° 36′ 30″ E. Situated on the old bank of the Beas (Biás), at the edge of the barren upland known as the Mánjha, 34 miles south of Lahore city. Population (1868) 5847; (1881) 5516, namely, Muhammadans, 3458; Hindus, 1650; and Sikhs, 408. Municipal revenue (1875-76), £327; (1882-83), £402, or average incidence, 1s. 6¼d. per head. In former days Khem Karn must have been a place of more importance than at present, as there are a number of ruins scattered around beyond its present limits. It is surrounded by a thick, well-built masonry wall, buttressed at intervals. The main streets are all paved, and it has two or three straight and fairly broad *bázárs*. The town contains some good houses, and has a fine *báoli* or public reservoir, with steps leading down to the water's edge. It is not, however, a place of much commercial importance, although a flourishing manufacture of country blankets affords employment to about three hundred families. The public buildings include a municipal hall, school-house, police station, and rest-house. The Kasúr branch of the Bári Doáb Canal passes the town.

Kherálí. — Petty State in the Jháláwár division of Káthiáwár,

Bombay Presidency; consisting of 2 villages, Kherálí and Vádla, with 3 separate shareholders. Area of the estate, 11 square miles; population (1881) 1658. Estimated revenue (1881), £1061; tribute of £67, 16s. is paid to the British Government. Kherálí village is situated $2\frac{1}{2}$ miles south of the Wadwhán station on the Bhaunagar-Gondal Railway. Population (1881) 1155.

Kherálu.—Town in Kadi Division, Baroda (Gáekwár's territory), Gujarát (Guzerát), Bombay Presidency. Lat. 23° 54′ N., long. 72° 40′ E. Population (1872) 8212; (1881) 8528, namely, 4030 males and 4498 females. Contains a civil court (*kachhari*), police station, two rest-houses, a post-office, and a Gujaráthí school. The Gosávji's temple is famous as having been founded by the Vishnuite reformer Vallabhácharya, who is said to have dwelt here.

Kheri.—District in the Sítápur Division of Oudh, under the jurisdiction of the Lieutenant-Governor of the North-Western Provinces, lying between 27° 41′ and 28° 42′ N. lat., and between 80° 4′ 30″ and 81° 23′ E. long. The largest District in Oudh, in the extreme north-west of the Province. Bounded on the north by the river Mohan, separating it from Nepál; on the east by the Kauriálá river, separating it from Bahráich; on the south by Sítápur District; and on the west by Sháhjahánpur District, in the North-Western Provinces. Area (1881), 2992 square miles. Population, according to the Census of 1881, 831,922 persons. The administrative head-quarters are at LAKHIMPUR town.

Physical Aspects.—Kheri District consists of a series of fairly elevated plateaux, separated by rivers flowing from the north-west, each of which is bordered by a belt of alluvial land. The rivers are, commencing from the east, the Kauriálá, Suheli, Dahávar, Chauká, Ul, Jamwári, Kathna, Gúmti, and Sukheta. North of the Ul, the country is what is generally styled *tarái*, and is considered very unhealthy. This tract probably formed in ancient times the bed of a lake, through which two main rivers, the Kauriálá and Chauká, have for thousands of years been forcing their way. These two rivers change their courses constantly, abandoning old channels and opening up new, so that the whole surface is seamed with deserted river beds much below the level of the surrounding country. In these, the vegetation is very dense, and the stagnant waters are the cause of much fever. The people reside in the neighbourhood of the low ground, as the soil is more fertile and less expensive to cultivate than the uplands, which are covered with forests.

South of the Ul, the scene changes. Between every two rivers there is a plain, more or less broad, considerably less elevated than the *tarái* tract to the north. There is very little slope in any of these plains for many miles, and marshes are formed, from which

emerge the head-waters of many secondary streams, but which in the rains become dangerous torrents, and frequently cause devastating floods. The general slope of the country is from north-west to south-east, the highest elevation being 600 feet in the northern forests, and the lowest 375 feet, opposite Mallápur in the extreme south-east. Several large lakes exist; some, formed by the ancient channels of the rivers in the north of the District, being fine sheets of water, from 10 to 20 feet deep and from 3 to 4 miles long, and in places fringed with magnificent groves. In Páila and Kheri *parganás* in the south, there are also large natural lakes. There are no river-side towns, nor do any of the villages in the neighbourhood of the rivers contain any number of persons who live by fishing or river traffic. At the ferries on the Chauká and Kauriálá, merchants encamp during the cold weather and buy up grain, departing before the rains commence.

The north of the District is covered with forests, occupying an area of 650 square miles. Of this area, 303 square miles were taken up by Government in 1861 and formed into a forest reserve. The remainder was divided into lots of 5000 acres or less, and let out to grantees rent-free for 20 years, and subsequently at half rates, upon the condition that one-fourth of the forest area should be cleared and brought into cultivation within 12 years. Some grants were sold outright at an upset price of 5s. an acre. Hardly any of these forest lessees either brought their land under cultivation under the first set of conditions, or paid up the due instalments of their purchase money under the second. Consequently, 120 square miles of such grants were resumed by Government, raising the present reserved forest area to a total of 423 square miles. Of the 227 square miles still held by private individuals, but little has been brought under the plough. *Sál* occupies about two-thirds of the whole forest area. In Khairigarh *parganá*, the trees grow to a large size, there being an average of more than ten to each acre, with a girth of over 4½ feet. The forests north of the Mohan consist mainly of *sál* and *ásan*. The banks of the Suheli are fringed with green *shisham* trees; above them rise masses of *khair*, with bare branches, and stiff, grey rugged trunks; and beyond them again are the *sál* forests, groups of tall, slender, straight stems, the older trees shooting up for 60 or 70 feet without a branch or bend. In addition to the forest, about 65 square miles of groves, chiefly of mango trees, are distributed over the District.

Kheri has no merchantable mineral products, except a little petroleum in Khairigarh *parganá*. *Kankar* of good quality is met with near Golá. Saltpetre is manufactured in large quantities at Dhaurahra. The wild animals include tigers, leopards, antelope, spotted deer, hog-deer, *nilgai*, principally found in the northern jungles. Tigers, although still

numerous, have decreased considerably of late years. Venomous snakes and crocodiles are common.

History.—The present District of Kheri has a very brief history, having only existed as an administrative unit since 1858. Under the native sovereigns of Oudh, it lay partly in the *Chaklá* of Muhamdi and partly in that of Khairábád. In 1856, when Oudh was annexed, two Districts were constituted, those of Muhamdi and Mallápur, dividing between them the whole of Kheri, in addition to several of the bordering *parganás* now included in Hardoi, Sítápur, and Bahráich. Their head-quarters were Muhamdi and Mallápur, one to the extreme west of the present District, the other near the south-eastern corner, in Sítápur. When the Mutiny broke out, the officers of Muhamdi were captured by the Sháhjahánpur mutineers or by the Rájá of Mitauli and massacred; those at Mallápur fled north into the jungles of Nepál, being cut off from a retreat to the south, and perished of fever and ague.

When the present District of Kheri was constituted in 1858, LAKHIMPUR was selected for the head-quarters. It is 28 miles due north of, and within easy reach of, Sítápur; but it cannot be considered central or very accessible, some villages being about 60 miles distant.

In Akbar's time, the country was entirely divided among families of *zamíndárs.* The Rájás of Muhamdi, who afterwards acquired nearly the whole District, then held under a royal grant 3000 *bíghás* and 5 small villages. The great estate of the Janwárs, which under its three heads Kaimahra, Oel, and Mahewa now embraces 330 villages, did not then exist. Similarly the Jángres estate of Bhúr Dhaurahra, which afterwards covered 800 square miles, did not exist even in the germ. The Ahbans estate of Bhúrwára existed in Akbar's time, but was much smaller and more divided, while the great Súrajbans estate of Khairigarh is a creation of 1858. In later times, there were four great families who held the lands now comprised in this District—namely, the Sayyids of Barwár, the Ahbans of Mitauli and Bhúrwára, the Janwárs of Kheri, and the Jángres of Dhaurahra.

Population.—The population of Kheri District, according to the Census of 1869, but calculated on the area of 1881, amounted to 399,585 males and 338,504 females; total, 738,089. The Census of 1881 returned a total population of 831,922, showing an increase of 93,833, or 12·7 per cent., in twelve years. The main results of the Census of 1881 may be briefly summarized as follows:—Area, 2992 square miles; number of towns and villages, 1655; houses, 142,657. Total population, 831,922, namely, males 445,019, and females 386,903; proportion of males, 53·5 per cent. Average density, 278 persons per square mile; villages per square mile, ·55; persons per village, 503; houses per square mile, 47·6; persons per house,

5·8. Classified according to religion, Hindus numbered 727,770, or 87·5 per cent. of the population; Muhammadans, 103,755, or 12·5 per cent.; Christians, 397.

Of the higher Hindu castes, Bráhmans numbered 67,110, or 9·2 per cent. of the Hindus; the Rájputs or Kshattriyas, 24,966, or 3·4 per cent.; Káyasths, 8017; and Baniyás, 12,389. The most numerous caste is that of the Chamárs, who numbered 108,639, or 14·9 per cent. of the Hindu population; next to them come the Kurmís with 84,441, or 11·6 per cent.; Ahírs, 71,984, or 9·9 per cent.; and Pásís, 62,748, or 8·6 per cent. The other principal Hindu castes, ranked according to numerical superiority, are—Kachhís, 42,801; Lodhís, 36,907; Kahárs, 28,285; Korís, 17,847; Telís, 16,195; Gadárias, 16,069; Dhobís, 13,176; Loniyás, 13,114; Barháis, 10,763; Bhurjís, 9506; Náis, 9365; Lohárs, 8974; Kalwárs, 8056; Kumbhárs, 6702; and Gosáins, 5084.

The only remarkable feature presented by the population tables is the comparative scarcity of the higher castes—Bráhmans, Kshattriyas, Káyasths, and Vaisyas (the last represented by the Baniyá or trading caste of the present day). They number altogether only 112,482, or 15·4 per cent. of the Hindus; in the whole Province of Oudh they amount to 2,387,602, or a fraction over 24 per cent. The reason of this is not far to seek. The low castes are the first, in all instances, to occupy the wilderness, and reclaim it from nature, and much of Kheri District has but very recently been brought under cultivation. There was little to invite the Bráhman or Kshattriya. There are very few temples, and none of ancient repute; consequently the priestly class is not numerous. Population was so thin that disputes about boundaries, that fertile source of internal warfare, were comparatively rare, and but few professional soldiers were required. The District, too, was so distant from any seat of Government, that there could be little interference with the great landholders, who found it more profitable in many cases to have low-caste industrious tenants than the prouder Aryans.

The Muhammadan population are almost without exception Sunnís, only 499 out of a total of 103,755 being returned as Shiás. Of the 397 Christians, 320 are natives, 62 Europeans, and 15 Eurasians.

All the towns now existing are of recent foundation. Kheri was founded in the 16th century, Muhamdi and Aurangábád in the 17th. Of their origin, one common tale is told. The Musalmán or Kshattriya founder came through the woods and marshes (the country then lying much lower than now), and seized upon the slight hills or hummocks, where some Pásí or Ahír patriarch ruled over a few mud huts. The rightful owner fled deeper into the forest, and the intruder built a block house or a brick fort to guard against his return. Only 5 towns were returned in 1881 as containing upwards of 5000 inhabitants,

namely, LAKHIMPUR, the civil station, 7526; MUHAMDI, 6635; OEL-DHAKWA, 6533; KHERI, 5996; and DHAURAHRA, 5767. Total urban population, 32,457.

Lakhimpur, Muhamdi, and Dhaurahra are the only three municipalities. Of the 1655 towns and villages in the District in 1881, 521 are returned as containing less than two hundred inhabitants; 564 from two to five hundred; 340 from five hundred to a thousand; 184 from one to two thousand; 29 from two to three thousand; 12 from three to five thousand; and 5 from five to ten thousand. Classified according to occupation, the Census Report returns the male population under the following six main groups:—Class (1) Professional, including all Government servants, civil and military, and the learned professions, 5245; (2) domestic servants, inn and lodging-house keepers, etc., 1431; (3) commercial, including merchants, traders, carriers, etc., 7088; (4) agricultural and pastoral, including gardeners, 224,612; (5) manufacturing and industrial, 28,871; (6) indefinite and unspecified (comprising 28,266 general labourers, 149,506 male children, and 'others'), 177,772.

Agriculture.—The chief agricultural product is rice, the area under this crop being returned in 1883–84 at 179,047 acres. The area under other crops is thus returned:—Wheat, 132,110 acres; other food-grains, 546,883; oil-seeds, 6918; sugar-cane, 20,596; cotton, 4270; tobacco, 9335; vegetables, 16,531; fibres (other than cotton), 6635 acres. Opium and indigo are also cultivated to a small extent. Total cultivated area (including 133,948 acres of two-crop land), 925,414 acres.

The rice of Kheri District is of excellent quality, but its cultivation is slovenly. There are two harvests in the year. The *kharíf* or autumn crops consist of rice, *kodo*, *kákan*, *joár*, *bájra*, *mas*, and *múg*, sown from June to August, and reaped between the end of September and the beginning of November. The *rabí* or spring crops are barley, wheat, gram, peas, and *arhar*, cut between March and June. The people are employed principally in the cultivation of the soil as tenants. The agricultural stock, in 1882–83, consisted of 93,733 ploughs, 567,395 bullocks and buffaloes. North of the river Ul, land is hardly ever manured, and never irrigated, except the small gardens in which tobacco and vegetables are grown. Total irrigated area, 96,714 acres, all by private industry. South of the Ul, a fair amount of labour is bestowed upon the crops in this respect, although less than is usual in the rest of Oudh.

The Kurmís, who form the most skilful body of cultivators in the District, are in general tolerably well off; but the mass of the low-caste husbandmen merely live from hand to mouth. The total male agricultural population of Kheri District in 1881 was returned at 223,387, giving an average of 3·32 cultivated acres to each. The

total agricultural population, however, dependent on the soil, amounted to 609,654, or 73·28 per cent. of the District population. Of the total area of 2992 square miles, 2425·9 square miles are assessed for Government revenue. Of these, 1122·3 square miles are under cultivation; 999·3 square miles are cultivable; and 304·3 square miles are uncultivable waste. Total amount of Government assessment, including local rates and cesses on land, £82,664, or an average of 2s. 3⅝d. per cultivated acre. Total amount of rental actually paid by cultivators, including rates and cesses, £180,008, or an average of 4s. 10⅛d. per cultivated acre. Rents, although not high, are very uneven. The highest rates seem to be £1, 13s. per acre for tobacco, and £1, 7s. per acre for sugar-cane land, in Haidarábád *parganá*. The average rent rates per acre for land suited for different crops was returned as follows in 1882–83:—Rice, 4s. 5½d. per acre; wheat, 7s. 0½d.; inferior grains, 5s. 9½d.; indigo, 6s.; cotton, 7s. 9d.; opium, 16s.; oil-seeds, 7s. 4d.; fibres, 5s. 6½d.; sugar-cane, 13s. 9½d.; and tobacco, 15s. 5½d. per acre. The lowest rented lands are the outlying patches far from the sites of villages, in Pália, Kukrá, and Bhúr, where the ordinary rate is 2s. per acre, but even 1s. an acre is met with. Tenants settle on the lands at these low rates, which are raised as population increases. The nominal rents were much the same under the native rulers as at present.

The principal landholding castes are the Jángre, Raikwár, Súrajbans, and Janwár Rájputs, Sikhs, and Sayyids. According to the *Oudh Gazetteer*, published in 1877, there were four estates in Kheri each measuring over 100,000 acres. Nine local landholders held in that year estates in this or other Districts averaging about 220 square miles each. There were 12 proprietors holding more than 20,000 acres each; their estates averaged 77,000 acres or 120 square miles in Kheri alone; the aggregate area of their holdings was 1435 square miles, or nearly half the District, and they controlled a population of about 400,000 in this District, and of at least a million in the whole of Oudh. The rest of the villages (656) were owned by 780 *zamíndárs*, many owning 2 or 3 villages. There are also a number of subordinate tenures, of which 873 had been decreed in the courts. The cultivators have no fixity of tenure. Out of 1690 villages, reported in the *Oudh Gazetteer*, Rájput landlords are returned as holding 850; Muhammadans, 353; Káyasths, 116; Bráhmans, 88; and Europeans, 98.

The average price of food-grains for the ten years ending 1870 is returned as follows:—Unhusked rice, 34 *sers* per rupee, or 3s. 4d. per cwt.; common rice, 17 *sers* per rupee, or 6s. 7d. per cwt.; best rice, 7 *sers* per rupee, or 16s. per cwt.; wheat, 22 *sers* per rupee, or 5s. 1d. per cwt.; barley, 34 *sers* per rupee, or 3s. 4d. per cwt.;

bájra, 30 *sers* per rupee, or 3s. 9d. per cwt.; *joár*, 31 *sers* per rupee, or 3s. 7d. per cwt. In 1870, the average rates were as follows:—Unhusked rice, 26½ *sers* per rupee, or 4s. 3d. per cwt.; common rice, 13 *sers* per rupee, or 8s. 7d. per cwt.; best rice, 5½ *sers* per rupee, or £1 per cwt.; wheat, 21 *sers* per rupee, or 5s. 4d. per cwt.; barley, 31 *sers* per rupee, or 3s. 6½d. per cwt.; *bájra*, 36 *sers* per rupee, or 3s. 1d. per cwt.; *joár*, 25 *sers* per rupee, or 4s. 6d. per cwt. In 1883-84, the rates for common rice were 16½ *sers* per rupee, or 6s. 9d. per cwt.; best rice, 10½ *sers* per rupee, or 10s. 8d. per cwt.; wheat, 23 *sers* per rupee, or 4s. 10d. per cwt.; and gram, 25½ *sers* per rupee, or 4s. 5d. per cwt.

Natural Calamities.—The District is liable to blights, droughts, and floods, the former, however, doing but little damage. Inundations are very destructive in Dhaurahra, Srínagar, and Firozábád *parganás*, from the overflow of the Chauká; and in Kheri and Haidarábád *parganás*, from the local rainfall causing the *jhíls* and marshes to overflow into the neighbouring fields. Muhamdi, Magdapur, Páila, and Khairigarh have good drainage generally, and do not suffer from floods. Hailstorms seldom occur. Severe famines occurred in 1769, in 1778-84, and in 1837, while there has been scarcity in 1865, in 1869, and in 1874; all these were caused by drought. The price of coarse grain reached 7 *sers* during these famine times; but whenever the cheapest wholesome grain in the market, whether it be *kodo*, maize, or barley, be priced for any length of time at a higher rate than 15 *sers* for the rupee, there will undoubtedly be famine. In January 1874, the cheapest grain reached 18 *sers*.

As in other Districts of Oudh, the periods in which famine is most to be apprehended are the two months before the *rabí* harvest is cut, January and February, and the two months before the *kharíf* harvest ripens, July and August. There is perhaps less danger of famine in Kheri than in the adjoining District of Bahráich, because the sugar-cane crop in January, which is an exceptionally large one, mitigates the winter scarcity, and the early half-ripe Indian corn or *makái* in August is used by those who have nothing left from their *rabí* harvest.

Roads, Manufactures, Trade, etc.—There are no metalled roads in Kheri, except the line from Sháhjahánpur to Sítápur, which passes for 21 miles through the south-west corner of the District. A raised and bridged road runs from Sitápur through Oel to Lakhimpur 28 miles, thence to Golá 20 miles, and thence to Muhamdi 18 miles. This road now extends to Sháhjahánpur. The District is well provided with minor unmetalled and unbridged roads. The principal of these are—(1) Lakhimpur to Sujahi; (2) Lakhimpur to Khairigarh; (3) Lakhimpur to Aurangábád; (4) Lakhimpur to Dhaurahra; (5) Páila to Materá; (6) Golá

to Bhera; and (7) Golá to Khotár. Total length of roads in 1882-83, 402¾ miles. The manufactures of the District are confined to weaving and cotton printing, carried on in Kheri *parganá*, but only to meet local requirements. Grain of all kinds is exported, as also are turmeric, tobacco, timber, sugar, syrup, hides, bullocks, and *ghí*. Catechu is made in large quantities throughout the northern parts of the District, from the *khair* tree (Acacia Catechu), the heart-wood of which is chopped out and boiled down by a caste called Khairís. *Khaskhas* (Andropogon muricatus), the roots of which are used for matting *tatti* screens, is exported in large quantities to Benares and Patná.

Two great annual religious trading fairs are held at Golá Gokarannáth —one in January attended by about 50,000 people, and the other in February, lasting about fifteen days, at which 150,000 persons are said to assemble. The latter fair is increasing rapidly in importance; goods to the value of about £15,000 being sold annually by traders from all parts of India. The principal trading *gháts* or landing-places in the District are Dulhámau and Pachperi on the Chauká, and Shitábi and Katái *gháts* on the Kauriálá, whence grain is exported by means of flat-bottomed boats to Lucknow and Patná. The imports, which consist mainly of cotton, salt, country cloth, and English piece-goods, are thought to exceed the exports in value.

Administration. — For administrative purposes, Kheri District is divided into 3 *tahsíls* and 17 *parganás*, as follows:—(1) Lakhimpur *tahsíl*, comprising Kheri, Srínagar, Bhúr, Páila, and Kukrá Mailáni *parganás*; (2) Nighásan *tahsíl*, comprising Firozábád, Dhaurahra, Nighásan, Khairigarh, and Palia *parganás*; (3) Muhamdi *tahsíl*, comprising Muhamdi, Pasgawán, Aurangábád, Kásta, Haidarábád, Magdapur, and Atwa Pipária, — all of which see separately. The administration is conducted by a Deputy Commissioner, with one or more Assistant Commissioners, and the usual staff of subordinates. The total revenue in 1870 amounted to £74,132, of which £62,471, or six-sevenths of the total, was derived from the land-tax, which is increasing every year. Total cost of administration in 1870, £29,594; but this included the expenses of the Survey Department, then engaged in making a new Land Settlement. In 1882-83, the total revenue amounted to £89,605, of which £79,088 was derived from the land. For police purposes, Kheri is divided into 7 police circles (*thánás*); the force, including regular police, village watch, and municipal police, numbered, in 1882, 2972 officers and men, maintained at a total cost of £13,557. Average daily number of prisoners in jail in 1882, 193; total number of convicts imprisoned during the year (732 males and 86 females), 818. In respect of education, Kheri is one of the most backward Districts of Oudh. There were in 1882, 90 schools, attended by

3069 pupils, inspected by the Government Education Department. In addition, there are a number of indigenous uninspected schools.

Climate.—The climate of Kheri is reckoned by the natives very malarious beyond the Ul, but healthy south of that river. The heat is less than in the surrounding Districts. The mean annual temperature is returned at 79·60° F. The rainfall is above the average of the Province. Cold winds following the course of the rivers sweep from the Nepál plateaux through the mountain gorges, and meeting the already saturated atmosphere of the plains, cool it, and precipitate moisture first on the lowlands at their base. The hot vapours from the plains are also cooled by the vast forests which clothe the uplands, and which, being unable to carry so much water, discharge it in rain. The average rainfall during the fourteen years ending 1881 amounted to 42·69 inches, the maximum being 70·2 inches in 1870, and the minimum 23·60 inches in 1881.

Medical Aspects.—The disease most common in this District is intermittent fever, which appears to be endemic in the neighbourhood of Gokarannáth. Its origin is assigned to the malaria produced by the spontaneous decomposition of vegetable matter after the cessation of the rains, and by imperfect drainage. European and native constitutions alike suffer from its attacks. Spring fever appears mostly among those whose pursuits expose them to the noon-day sun. It assumes a remittent type, and is proportionally more fatal as summer advances. Next in the order of frequency are bowel complaints. As a rule, they increase at harvest-time, and have a fatal tendency when succulent fruit and vegetables are abundant in the market. Cholera became epidemic in this District during the rains of 1867, and was most fatal and persistent in those villages where filth most abounded. In Lakhimpur town, the scourge was apparently introduced on *bázár* days, or only occurred sporadically. Pulmonic and rheumatic affections increase in winter.

Of cutaneous affections, herpes deserves notice; it is very prevalent among the natives. It seems to be acquired from the practice of keeping on a *dhoti* while bathing, and replacing it by a clean one without drying the skin. The disease is seen chiefly about the hips and loins of those affected, and does not yield readily to treatment; strong acetic acid externally is the best remedy. Leprosy is not an uncommon disease. Goitre is most common among the trans-Chauká population. The quality of the water is supposed to be the cause of this disease. Its local distribution is unaccountably capricious, but, as a rule, the great majority of the cases occur within 2 miles of the river bank, particularly in Dhaurahra and Páila *parganás.* Venereal diseases are common, and frequently seen in their secondary and tertiary forms, a fact attributable to neglect or improper

treatment of the primary symptoms. Among ophthalmic disorders, those most prevalent are ophthalmia and nyctalopia; they occur principally in summer. Cataract among the aged is not uncommon. Dropsies of the skin and abdomen are often seen in subjects who have long suffered from marsh fever and enlarged spleen.

In 1882, the total number of registered deaths in Kheri District was 28,098, showing a death-rate of 33·77 per thousand, as against an average of 23·32 per thousand for the previous five years. Deaths from fevers alone numbered 22,744, and from cholera 3957. There are 5 dispensaries in the District, which in 1882 afforded medical relief to 587 in-door, and 20,318 out-door patients.

Cattle plague made its appearance in Kheri in 1870 and 1871, and it is estimated that about one-fourth of the cattle in the District died, viz. 120,000, of an estimated value of £120,000. Cattle murrain is said to have been unknown prior to this epidemic. [For further information regarding Kheri, see the *Gazetteer of Oudh*, vol. ii. pp. 140–273 (published by authority, Allahábád, 1877). See also the *Settlement Report* of the District, by T. R. Redfern, Esq., C.S. (1879); the *Census Report of the North-Western Provinces and Oudh* for 1881; and the several Annual Administration and Departmental Reports from 1880 to 1883.]

Kheri. — *Parganá* in Lakhimpur *tahsíl*, Kheri District, Oudh; lying between the Ul and Jamwári rivers on the east and south-west respectively, and bounded on the north-west by Páila, and on the south by Sítápur *parganá*. Area, 193 square miles, of which 130 are cultivated. Population (1869) 104,916; (1881) 107,668, namely, males 56,951, and females 50,717. The *parganá* is roughly divided into two parts. One is an upland plateau, largely irrigated from *jhíls* and wells, which contains three-quarters of the total area, the soil nearly all high-class loam. To the north-east of this plateau, along its whole length, lies a slope, 1 or 2 miles in breadth, of lighter soil, which suddenly sinks into the *tarái* of the Ul. Farther to the south-east, the Kewáni river has formed a very extensive *tarái* of first-class land, separated from the Ul *tarái*, as far as the borders of Kheri District, by a promontory of high land running south-east from the main plateau. This *tarái* is at a level of nearly 60 feet beneath the upper ground.

Down the centre of the *parganá* runs a series of *jhíls*, or marshy lakes. They collect the water of the plateau, which is slightly saucer-shaped. The southern edge is formed by the high bank of the Jamwári, and the northern by the bank of the Ul. These lakes communicate in the rains; and generally there is a slight stream running through to Muhammadpur, where the channel becomes perennial and joins the Kewáni. Unfortunately, however, this outlet is not sufficient,

and the overflow spreads over a great area, as the lowest point of the plateau is only 11 feet lower than the highest. A part of the water also from these lakes, in heavy rain, seeks an outlet through LAKHIMPUR station to the Ul, and five persons were drowned or killed by the floods and falling houses in 1870. This series of lakes offers good facilities for constructing irrigation channels, which will be more required every year. Kheri is well supplied with groves.

Bisens appear to have been the earliest landlords in Muhammadan times, having ousted the Pásis. The whole *parganá*, however, afterwards became part of the great estate formed by the Barwár Sayyids. This family, however, has decayed; and out of the 193 villages now forming the *parganá*, 138 are held by Rájputs. Small local traffic in grain, and a few settlements of weavers and cotton printers.

Kheri.—Town in Kheri District, Oudh, and head-quarters of Lakhimpur *tahsíl;* situated in lat. 27° 54′ N., long. 80° 51′ E. Population (1869) 7001; (1881) 5996, namely, Muhammadans, 3524, and Hindus, 2472. For police and conservancy purposes, a house-tax is levied. Daily market, 14 Hindu temples, 12 mosques, and 3 *imámbárás.* The one object of antiquarian interest is the tomb of Sayyid Khurd, who died in 971 A.H. or 1563 A.D.—a building composed of huge *kankar* blocks.

Kherkeriá.—Village in Bhután, near the Lakshmí *nadi*, just beyond the northern frontier of Darrang District, Assam. An annual fair is held here, which is largely attended by people from considerable distances. In 1875, the Bhutiás are estimated to have sold goods valued at £1700, chiefly salt, blankets, ponies, gold, and a spice called *jabrang;* and to have bought goods to the value of £1600, chiefly rice, silk, cloth, cotton cloth, dried fish, and hardware.

Kherna.—Seaport in the Salsette Sub-division of Thána District, Bombay Presidency. One of the ports of the Panwel customs division. Average annual value of trade during the five years ending 1881–82—imports, £35; exports, £289.

Khetri.—Chiefship and town in Jaipur (Jeypore) State, Rájputána. The chiefship comprises the *parganás* of Khetri, Babai, Singhána, and Jhunjhnu, yielding an annual revenue of about £35,000, and paying a tribute of £8000 a year to Jaipur. The chief holds, besides, the *parganá* of Kot Putli, yielding about £10,000 a year, a possession which was bestowed in perpetuity upon his ancestor, Rájá Abbi Singh, by the British Government, for military services rendered to Lord Lake against the Maráthás in the early part of the present century, notably in an important engagement by British troops, under Colonel Monson, with Sindhia's army on the banks of the Chambal. Population of the town (1881) 5283, namely, 2592

males and 2691 females. Hindus numbered 3929; Muhammadans, 1347; and 'others,' 7. The town is commanded by a citadel of some strength, on the summit of a hill 1000 feet high. It is distant from Jaipur city 75 miles north. In the immediate neighbourhood are valuable copper mines. School, dispensary, imperial post-office.

Kheura.—Village in Jehlam (Jhelum) District, Punjab.—*See* MAYO MINES.

Khiáodah.—Petty State in Gwalior, under the Gúna (Goona) Sub-agency, Central India. Originally a portion of the Umri State, it now comprises 7 villages, with a population (1881) of 1184, and an income of about £300. The *Thákur* or chief is not a feudatory of Gwalior.

Khijadia Nágánio.—Petty State in the Jhálawar division of Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency; consisting of 1 village, with 1 proprietor. Estimated revenue (1881), £100. Tribute of £5, 4s. is paid to the Gáekwár of Baroda.

Khijaria. — Petty State in the Gohelwár division of Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency; consisting of 1 village, with 2 separate shareholders. Area, 2 square miles. Population (1881) 265. Estimated revenue (1881), £240. Khijaria village is situated 11 miles north-west of Chital station on the Bhaunagar-Gondal Railway.

Khijaria. — Petty State in the Gohelwár division of Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency; consisting of 1 village, with 2 separate shareholders. Area, 1 square mile. Population (1881) 995. Estimated revenue (1881), £240. Tribute of £38 is payable to the Gáekwár of Baroda, and of £4, 14s. to the Nawáb of Junágarh. Khijaria village is situated 18 miles south-east of Songarh and 5 miles north-west of Dhola junction on the Bhaunagar-Gondal Railway.

Khilchipur.—State under the Bhopál Agency, Central India; a tributary of Gwalior. Lat. 23° 52′ to 24° 17′ N., long. 76° 28′ to 76° 45′ E. Chief products—grain and opium. The present Chief of Khilchipur is Ráo Amar Singh, a Khichi Rájput, who since his accession in 1869 has received the title of Ráo from the British Government. He was adopted, with the consent of Sindhia, by the widow of the late Chief, and the adoption was confirmed by the British Government. The area of the State is estimated at 273 square miles. Population (1881) 36,125, or 132 persons per square mile. Of the total population, 19,859 are males and 16,266 females. Number of houses, 6757. Hindus numbered 33,291; Muhammadans, 1273; Jains, 250; and aboriginal tribes, 1311. The State contains 269 villages, and its revenue is estimated at £17,500. The Chief pays tribute of £1313 to Sindhia, through the Political Agent in Bhopál. He maintains a force of 40 horse and 200 foot, and is entitled to a salute of 9 guns.

Khilchipur.—Chief town of the State of Khilchipur, under the

Bhopál Agency of Central India. Situated on the banks of the Kálí Sind river, a stone dam across which supplies water to the inhabitants. The country about the city is hilly and jungly, and sparsely cultivated. It is about 7 miles north-east from Rájgarh, and on the road from thence to Jhálra Patan, thus gaining the only trade it possesses. Population (1881) from 3000 to 5000.

Khimlásá.—Town in Kuraí *tahsíl*, Ságar (Saugor) District, Central Provinces; 42 miles north-west of Ságar town. Lat. 24° 12′ 30″ N., long. 78° 24′ 30″ E. Population (1881) 2726, namely, Hindus, 2219; Jains, 294; Muhammadans, 212; and Kabírpanthí, 1. Number of houses, 713. A stone wall 20 feet high surrounds the town, enclosing a space of 63 acres; and the fort, which is built on high ground in the centre, occupies 5 acres. Within the fort are the police station-house and two remarkable edifices. One, a Muhammadan building, apparently the burial-place of some saint, consisted of a square structure, surmounted by a lofty dome. The dome has fallen, but the side walls remain; they are formed of enormous slabs of stone, about an inch and a half thick, cut with the most beautiful fretwork designs right through the stone, so that the pattern is visible both within and without the building. The other edifice is of Hindu origin, and was apparently a *shísha mahal* or glass palace. The upper of the two storeys contained an apartment fitted with mirrors, many traces of which still remain.

Khimlásá originally belonged to a dependant of the Delhi Emperor, but was taken by the Rájá of Panna in 1695, on the death of whose son without heirs in 1746, the representative of the Peshwá at Ságar occupied the fort. It was made over to the British with Ságar in 1818. From that date the town was the head-quarters of a *tahsíl*, till in 1834 the *tahsíli* was moved to Kuraí. In July 1857, during the Mutiny, when the Bhánpur Rájá occupied Kuraí, he also seized Khimlásá, and the town has not yet recovered from the damage done by his troops. Though the streets are narrow and irregular, the houses are generally well built, but many are still ownerless. Little trade takes place, though a market is held every Sunday. Two schools for boys and girls respectively have been established. Police station.

Khindoli.—*Tahsíl* in Agra District, North-Western Provinces.—*See* KHANDAULI.

Khipra.—*Táluk* or Sub-division in Thar and Párkar District, Sind, Bombay Presidency; situated between 25° 26′ and 26° 14′ 45″ N. lat., and 69° 2′ 45″ and 70° 16′ E. long. Population (1881) 26,079, namely, 14,348 males and 11,731 females; number of houses, 4886. The Sub-division contains 28 villages. Hindus numbered 2722; Muhammadans, 20,279; aboriginal tribes, 2928; Sikhs, 140; Christians, 5; Jews, 4; and Jains, 1. Revenue (1881–82), £6595, of which £5609

is derived from land; £667 from *sayer* (miscellaneous), and £319 from local sources. In 1884 the Sub-division contained 2 civil and 2 criminal courts; police stations (*thánás*), 9; regular police, 45 men.

Khipra.—Chief town in Khipra *táluk*, Thar and Párkar District, Sind, Bombay Presidency; situated on the Eastern Nára, about 40 miles north-west of Umárkot town. Lat. 25° 49′ 30″ N., long. 69° 25′ E. Population in 1881 inconsiderable. The municipal revenue in 1873-74 was £236, but the municipality was abolished in 1878, on the introduction into Sind of the Bombay Act vi. of 1873. Head-quarters station of a *mukhtiyárkár* and *tappadár;* civil and criminal court-houses; police post; *dharmsála* or rest-house. Occupation of the inhabitants principally agricultural. Manufactures consist chiefly in weaving and dyeing of cloth; local trade in cotton, wool, cocoa-nuts, metals, grain, sugar, tobacco, etc. Transit trade—grain, cattle, wool, *ghí*, indigo, sugar, and cloth. The town is supposed to have been founded about a century ago.

Khirasra.—Petty State in the Hallár division of Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency; consisting of 13 villages, with 1 proprietor. Estimated revenue (1881), £1900. Tribute of £236, 12s. is paid to the British Government, and £35 to the Nawáb of Junágarh. Area of the estate, 13 square miles. Population (1881) 4377.

Khiron.—*Parganá* in Dalmau *tahsíl*, Rái Bareli District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Mauránwán; on the east by Dalmau and Rái Bareli; on the south by Sareni; and on the west by Panhán, Bhagwant-nagar, Bihár, and Patan. Population (1869) 57,102; (1881) 59,492, namely, males 29,252, and females 30,240. Hindus numbered 56,579, and Muhammadans 2913. Area, 102 square miles, or 65,097 acres. Government land revenue, £9070; average rate per acre, 2s. 9½d. Of the 123 villages forming the *parganá*, 79 are held under *tálukdárí* tenure; 20 are *zamíndárí*, and 24 *pattidárí*. Five market villages. Two large annual fairs. The *parganá* was originally in the possession of the Bhars, who were ousted about 700 years ago by Rájá Abhái Chand of the Bais clan, who annexed it to his dominions, and his descendants still form the main proprietary body. Rájá Sátna, eighth in descent from Abhái Chand, founded a village, calling it after his own name Sátanpur, which he also bestowed upon the whole *parganá*. This arrangement continued till the time of Nawáb Asaf-ud-daulá, when the *tahsíldár* of the *parganá* built a fort at Khiron, which he fixed on as the seat of the *tahsíl*, and re-named the *parganá* after it.

Khiron.—Town in Dalmau *tahsíl*, Rái Bareli District, Oudh, and head-quarters of Khiron *parganá;* situated on the road from Rái Bareli to Cawnpur, 18 miles from Rái Bareli town. Population (1881) 3083, namely, 2439 Hindus and 644 Muhammadans. The residence of one of the *parganá tálukdárs*. Here also dwell some notable old families of

Káyasth *kánúngos.* Vernacular school; weekly market. Ruined mud-built fort dating from the days of native rule.

Khirpái.—Village in Midnapur District, Bengal; situated on the main road from Bardwán to Midnapur town. Transferred, with the surrounding country, from Húglí to Midnapur in 1872. Population (1881) 6295, namely, Hindus, 6081; Muhammadans, 207; 'others,' 7. Area of town site, 1280 acres. Municipal income in 1882-83, £167; average incidence of taxation, $5\frac{3}{8}$d. per head. The town is principally inhabited by cotton-weavers, who manufacture fabrics of a superior quality, which commands a high price.

Khisor (Khasor) Hills.—Range in Dera Ismáil Khán District, Punjab, known also under the name of RATTAH ROH or 'Red Hills;' situated between 32° 13′ and 32° 34′ N. lat., and between 70° 56′ and 71° 21′ E. long. The Indus washes their eastern base for a distance of about 25 miles, from Isá Khel to Chúra, near Bilot, after which the chain sweeps slightly westward, parallel to the Shaikh Budín Hills, from which it is separated by the Paniála valley, having an average breadth of 5 miles, till it terminates at Paniála, about 16 miles from the Indus. The extensive ruins of two ancient Hindu forts or fortified monasteries—the one about 9 miles south of the mouth of the Kuram river, and the other immediately above the town of Bilot—make these hills archæologically interesting. Both of the ruins are locally called Kafir Kot, 'infidel's fort.' Bilot is also famous for its shrine of a holy Sayyid, who used to sail about the Indus in a stone boat. His descendant, known as the Makhdúm of Bilot, has inherited the sanctity as well as the stone boat of his ancestor, and enjoys a *jágír* worth about £250 a year.

The hills consist of miocene sandstone and conglomerate, superimposed upon jurassic and carboniferous limestone, in which fossils occur abundantly. The range is generally stony and destitute of vegetation and water. Here and there springs are to be found, their presence being usually marked by a clump of palms. The largest of these is the Garoba spring, near Kirri Khisor. Its waters run for a mile or two along a narrow ravine fringed with date-palms. These springs are generally situated too low to allow of their being utilized for irrigation. Water for cattle is also procured from some large tanks at the very top of the range, above Kirri Khisor. The hills are dotted with numerous patches of cultivated land, varying in size from one or two roods to twenty acres. These fields are embanked to receive and retain the rain water from the higher land, and sometimes form terraces one above the other. The cultivation, however, entirely depends on the rainfall, and is very uncertain. Sometimes nearly the whole of these hill fields remain waste; while in years of abundant rainfall almost the whole is cultivated, yielding very fair crops of wheat and

bájra. Lands at the foot of the hills watered from wells produce tobacco.

The Khisor range has a total length of about 50 miles, a breadth of 6 miles, and an elevation varying from 2000 to about 3500 feet. Its northern extremity juts into the District of Bannu.

Kholápur.—Town in Amráoti District, Berár, Deccan; 18 miles west of Amráoti town. Lat. 20° 55′ 30″ N., long. 77° 33′ 30″ E. Population (1867) 6169; (1881) 6452, namely, 3261 males and 3191 females, of whom 4576 were Hindus, 1719 Musalmáns, 150 Jains, and 7 Sikhs. Silk trade was once considerable. In 1809, the *subahdár* of Ellichpur, Vithal Bhág Deo, demanded a contribution of £10,000. On payment being refused, he captured the town, which was then protected by walls; and it was sacked by his troops. Its rapid decadence may be partly attributable to the annual fights between the Musalmáns and the Rájputs, when the victorious party always took occasion to plunder at least part of the town.

Kholpetuá.—River in Khulná District, Bengal; an offshoot of the KABADAK near Asásuní. It first keeps a westerly course for a short distance, and, after receiving the waters of the Budhátá Gáng, turns to the south till it is joined by the GALGHASIA, whence the united river flows through the Sundarbans till it falls again into the Kabadak, a few miles above the place where that river in its turn empties itself into the PANGASI. The Kholpetuá is a river of little note, except for the great breadth which it assumes after it is joined by the Galghásiá, the width of the channel increasing from 150 to 600 yards in a course of 16 miles.

Khora. — Village in Khairpur State, Sind, Bombay Presidency; situated on the Abulwáro Canal, about 20 miles from Khairpur town, and on the postal road between Haidarábád (Hyderábád) and Múltán (Mooltan). The population is inconsiderable. There is a small manufacture of coarse cotton cloth.

Khosháb. — *Tahsíl* and town in Sháhpur District, Punjab.—*See* KHUSHAB.

Khudábád.—Ruined town in Dadu *táluk*, Sehwán Sub-division, Karáchi (Kurrachee) District, Sind, Bombay Presidency; 16 miles north-east of Sehwán, and 8 miles south-west of Dadu. Lat. 26° 38′ 35″ N., long. 67° 44′ 30″ E. With regard to this place, Thornton says: 'Little more than thirty years ago it rivalled Haidarábád in size and population, yet now not one habitable dwelling remains. It was a favourite residence of the Talpur chiefs of Sind, and the remains of many of them rest here in tombs of neat but plain construction.'

Khúdián. — Town in Chunián *tahsíl*, Lahore District, Punjab; situated on the road from Firozpur to Múltán. Lat. 30° 59′ 30″ N., long. 74° 19′ 15″ E. Population (1869) 3108; (1881) 2917, namely, Muhammadans, 1694; Hindus, 1071; and Sikhs, 152. Number of

houses, 607. Municipal income (1882–83), £120, or an average taxation of 9¾d. per head. It is an old town, but of no present importance; surrounded by a brick wall, with well-built houses of burnt brick, and several large residences. The Katora Inundation Canal passes close to the town on the south. School and police station.

Khújji.—*Zamíndárí* estate in Drúg *tahsíl*, Ráipur District, Central Provinces; 70 miles south-west of Ráipur town. Khújji village is situated in lat. 21° 57′ N., long. 81° 57′ 30″ E. Area of the estate, 71 square miles; number of villages, 32; occupied houses, 3459. Population (1881) 11,309, namely, males 5616, and females 5693; average density, 159 persons per square mile. The estate is at present (1883) under Government management, the *zamíndár*, a Muhammadan, being a minor.

Khulná.—A British District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of Bengal, lying between 21° 38′ and 23° 1′ N. lat., and between 88° 55′ and 89° 59′ E. long. Khulná District forms the south-eastern portion of the Presidency Division. It is bounded on the north by Jessor District, on the east by Bákarganj District, on the south by the Sundarbans, and on the west by the Twenty-four Parganás. Area, exclusive of the unsurveyed Sundarbans, 2077 square miles. Population, according to the Census of 1881, 1,079,948 persons. The administrative head-quarters are at the town of Khulná, which is the terminus of the Bengal Central Railway.

Physical Aspects.—Khulná occupies the southern central portion of the Delta between the Húglí and the united Ganges and Brahmaputra. Its general shape is much the same as that of the Twenty-four Parganás, an irregular parallelogram. It is an alluvial plain, intersected by rivers, which again are interlaced by cross-channels and marshes. The District may be divided into three parts: the north-western portion, where the land is well raised; the north-eastern portion, from the boundary-line between Jessor and Khulná, down to the latitude of Bágherhát, where the land is low and covered with swamps; and the southern portion, which forms the Khulná Sundarbans, a mere tangled network of swamps and rivers, in the interstices of which (except where reclamation has been going on) tillage is impossible, and there is no settled population.

The north-west of Khulná District is beautified with extensive groves of date-palms and plantations, especially on the outskirts of villages. Indeed, nearly every village lies within its own fringe of plantations and garden-ground. The produce of the date trees is boiled down into *gur* or molasses by the cultivators, and sold to refiners for the purpose of being manufactured into sugar. In the north-east portion of the District the population is sparse, the only parts of the tract suitable for dwellings being the high land along the

banks of rivers. The principal rivers of Khulná are the Madhumati (which forms the eastern boundary of the District), with its tributary the Bhairab, on the banks of which is situated the town of Khulná; the Kabadak, the Bhadra, the Athárabanká, the Jamuná or Ichhamatí, the Galghásiá or Bánstálá, and the Sibsá. As in all deltaic tracts, the banks of the rivers are higher than the adjacent country; but a great part of the District is spread out into large marshes.

History.—The history of Khulná District is much the same as the history of JESSOR, as more than two-thirds of it is formed of what were formerly Sub-divisions of the District of Jessor. Khulná was erected into a separate District on the 1st June 1882.

Population. — The population of Khulná, as ascertained by the Census of 1881, is 1,079,948 persons, inhabiting 2890 villages or townships, and 156,223 houses. The average pressure of the population on the soil throughout the surveyed portion of the District is 519·96 to the square mile; number of houses per square mile, 77·03; persons per house, 6·91. The density of the population varies, however, in a most marked way in different parts of the District. After what has been said above in connection with the physical aspects of the three different portions into which Khulná may be divided, it will be readily understood that the population may be expected to be more sparse towards the south of the District than in the north-west and north-east.

Of the total population, 568,402 are males and 511,546 females; proportion of males, 52·63 per cent. Classified according to age, there are, under twelve years old — males 183,167, and females 173,414; total children, 356,581, or 33·01 per cent. As regards religious distinctions, Hindus number 523,657, or 48·48 per cent. of the total population, while Musalmáns number 555,544, or 51·44 per cent., chiefly belonging to the lower classes. The number of Christians is 747, of whom 723 are native converts. Of the higher castes of Hindus, Bráhmans number 28,654, and Rájputs 551. Of the lower ranks of the Hindu community, the fishing and boating castes deserve special mention. The fisheries in the rivers and deeper swamps are very valuable, and the right to fish is a regular tenure, paid for like the right to cultivate land.

Towns and Villages.—There are, in Khulná, according to the Census of 1881, four towns with a population of over 5000 souls, viz. SATKHIRA, 8738; KALAMOA, 5995; KALIGANJ, 5554; and DEBHATA, 5514; and there are three municipalities in the District, at Sátkhirá, Debhátá, and Chandoniá. There are 160 towns containing from 1000 to 5000 inhabitants, of which 138 contain fewer than 2000; 2266 villages with fewer than 500; and 460 with between 500 and 1000 inhabitants. Among the towns or large villages which, though con-

taining fewer than 5000 inhabitants, are important commercially or otherwise, may be mentioned the following:—Khulná, the 'capital of the Sundarbans,' a town of commercial importance, and the civil station of the District, past which the whole boat traffic of the east and north-east passes on its way to Calcutta; Kapilmuni, a market and place of pilgrimage; Bágherhát, with the celebrated *shat-gumbaz* or sixty-domed mosque, and many other interesting ruins connected with Khán Jahán, one of the earliest reclaimers of the Sundarbans; Morrellganj on the Pángáchi, lately the property of Messrs. Morrell and Lightfoot; and Sátkhirá, which contains many Hindu temples. Descriptions of most of these places will be found in their alphabetical order in this work, and a detailed account of them is given in the *Statistical Account of Bengal*, vol. ii. pp. 201–239.

Occupations.—As regards occupation, the Census Report of 1881 classifies the male population into the following six main divisions:—(1) Professional class, including all Government officials and the professions, 10,786; (2) domestic servants, innkeepers, etc., 7068; (3) commercial classes, including bankers, merchants, traders, carriers, etc., 31,666; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, including gardeners, 253,622; (5) industrial class, including manufacturers and artisans, 63,204; (6) indefinite and unspecified class, comprising general labourers and male children, 202,056.

Agriculture.—As in Jessor, the staple crop in the District of Khulná is rice, of which there are three harvests, *áman*, *áus*, and *boro*. The times of sowing and reaping vary in different parts of the District, as in Jessor. In the north-west portion of Khulná, *áman* or winter rice is sown in April and May, and reaped in November or December; in the Sundarbans, it is sown in April and reaped in January. The land for this crop is ploughed four times before sowing, and, except in marsh lands, the young shoots are transplanted in July. For *áus* rice the ground is ploughed five or six times, the seed is sown on higher ground, there is no transplanting, and the lands yield a second crop. *Boro* rice is hardly ploughed at all; the seed is scattered broadcast in the marshes as they dry up, and the shoots are transplanted when a month old, and sometimes again a month later. Among the other crops of the District are peas, jute, sugar-cane, date palms, etc. The land tenures of the District deserve special notice. The possessors of Sundarbans grants are called *tálukdárs*. Several of them hold considerable estates in Jessor, Bákarganj, or the Twenty-four Parganás; but many are residents in the portion of this District immediately north of the Sundarbans. These are men who, being in comfortable circumstances, have money enough to carry on Sundarban reclamation with success, although they cannot afford to leave the business in the hands of agents. They are therefore immediately interested in

the reclamation scheme, and to them is due much of the agricultural improvements and extension since the Permanent Settlement. Rates of rent vary in Khulná, as in Jessor, according to the description and position of the land.

National Calamities.—Blights occur occasionally, but rarely to any serious extent. The District is, as might be expected, subject to heavy floods, which have sometimes been immediately followed by disastrous cyclones.

Commerce and Trade.—The trade of Khulná is carried on by means of permanent markets. The chief exports are sugar, both *dhulna* (half-refined) and *paka* (white granular), indigo, rice, etc., and from the Sundarbans, timber, honey, shells, etc. The principal imports are salt, English piece-goods, and hardware. The exports greatly exceed the imports in value.

Administration. — Khulná was formerly a Sub-division of Jessor District, but now, with the addition of two more Sub-divisions, it forms a District of itself. With the view of lightening the work in the great suburban District of the Twenty-four Parganás, and of partially relieving Nadiyá and Jessor of the charges which pressed so heavily on them, the local Government, after long and careful inquiry, came to the conclusion that the formation of a Sundarbans District with its head-quarters at Khulná was absolutely necessary. The advantages of having the head-quarters at the Khulná terminus of the new Bengal Central Railway are many; and the same grounds which rendered it desirable that the Sundarbans should be connected by railway communication with Calcutta, pointed conclusively to the choice of Khulná as the head-quarters of the new District. The sanction of the Government of India and of the Secretary of State having been obtained to the formation of the new District in the Sundarbans, which the local Government considered should be formed, a notification, dated the 25th April 1882, which took effect from the 1st June of the same year, declared that it should consist of the Sátkhirá Sub-division of the Twenty-four Parganás, and of the Khulná and Bágherhát Sub-divisions of Jessor District, the head-quarters being at the town of Khulná. Jessor District, thus relieved of two Sub-divisions, is in a position to take one from Nadiyá, which District stands in need of relief. The Bángáon Sub-division of Nadiyá is accordingly to be transferred to Jessor, of which District indeed it geographically forms a part. The effect of these changes is that each of the three Districts of the Twenty-four Parganás, Nadiyá, and Jessor will be relieved of one Sub-division, and will be reduced to more manageable proportions in regard to area and population.

The additional establishment which has been provided for Khulná, exclusive of the usual ministerial establishments, is a Magistrate and

Collector, a Joint-Magistrate, a Civil Surgeon, and a District Superintendent of Police. Beyond the appointment of a subordinate Judge, no increase in the judicial establishment is necessary, as the Judge of Jessor will hold sessions at Khulná, and, with the aid of the subordinate Judge newly appointed, and the *munsif*, dispose of the civil work of the District. For police purposes Khulná is divided into 13 *thánás* or police circles, with 11 outposts and 1 salt pass-station. The District police consists of 303 men, of all ranks. There is one District jail in Khulná and two subsidiary jails.

Medical Aspects—Climate.—The seasons are substantially the same as in other Districts of Lower Bengal; but the climate is marked by a comparative absence of cold weather during the winter months, throughout which heavy night dews prevail, and by a cool breeze during the rainy season from the south-east. During the year the thermometer ranges from 56° to 98° F. The rainfall during the year 1882 at the town of Khulná was returned at 67·02 inches.

Diseases.—As in the neighbouring Districts, intermittent and other classes of fever are prevalent throughout the year, owing to the extreme dampness of the District. The people living on the borders of the Sundarbans, and those at a distance, suffer alike from this cause; the country in the immediate neighbourhood of the head-quarters of the Sátkhirá Sub-division being apparently the most unhealthy. Cholera is scarcely ever absent, being most severe at the commencement of the cold season. The total number of deaths reported to have occurred from cholera during 1882 was 2830, of which 1538 happened during the last quarter of the year. Small-pox is now almost unknown. Cattle disease prevails at times, chiefly in the Sundarban tracts of the Bágherhát Sub-division. The cattle required for cultivation in those parts are carried backwards and forwards in crowded boats; and from want of proper accommodation, both in their transit and on shore, it is not surprising that some disease among them occurs.

Medical Institutions.—There are public charitable dispensaries, containing accommodation for in-door patients, supported by voluntary contributions, at the head-quarters of each of the Sub-divisions of Khulná, Sátkhirá, and Bágherhát, in charge of native hospital assistants; and also one at Morrellganj, supported by the owners of that estate; one at Daulatpur, 6 miles from Khulná, supported from the funds of the Sayyidpur trust estate (the Mohsin Fund), of which a considerable portion lies in this District; and one at Syámnagar in the Sub-division of Sátkhirá, maintained by the *zamíndár* of Nokipur. The total number of persons who received out-door medical relief in the year 1882 was about 8000.

Khulná.—Head-quarters Sub-division of Khulná District, Bengal; situated between 21° 41′ 45″ and 23° 1′ N. lat., and between 89° 12′ 30″

and 89° 47′ 15″ E. long. Area (1881), 696 square miles; with 886 villages or towns, and 47,480 houses. Population (1872) 324,001; (1881) 344,389, showing an increase of 20,388, or 6·29 per cent., in nine years. Classified according to religion, there were, in 1881—Hindus, 169,960, or 49·4 per cent.; Muhammadans, 174,267, or 50·6 per cent.; and Christians, 162; total, 344,389, namely, 180,994 males and 163,395 females. Proportion of males, 52·6 per cent.; density of population, 495 persons per square mile; villages per square mile, 1·27; persons per village, 389; houses per square mile, 54; persons per house, 7·1. This Sub-division, which was constituted in 1842, comprises the 4 police circles (*thánás*) of Khulná, Baitághátá, Damuriá, and Páikgáchha. In 1883 it contained 4 civil and 5 criminal courts, a regular police force of 151 men, besides 575 village watchmen.

Khulná.—Administrative head-quarters of Khulná District, Bengal; situated at the point where the Bhairab river meets the Sundarbans. Lat. 22° 49′ 10″ N., long. 89° 36′ 55″ E. Khulná may be described as the capital of the Sundarbans; and for the last hundred years at least it has been a place of considerable importance. It was the head-quarters of the salt department during the period of the Company's salt manufacture. The whole boat traffic from the east and north-east passes here on its way to Calcutta: rice from Dacca and Bákarganj; lime, lemons, and oranges from Sylhet; mustard seed, linseed, and pulse from Pabná, Rájsháhí, and Farídpur; clarified butter (*ghí*) from Patná; and firewood from the Sundarbans. From Calcutta, the principal cargo is Liverpool salt, the trade in which is very considerable. Numerous sugar refineries exist. It contains three market-places, of which the most important, Sen's Bázár, is situated on the east and the other two on the west bank of the river. Khulná town forms the terminus of the Bengal Central Railway.

Khumber.—Town in Bhartpur (Bhurtpore) State, Rájputána.—*See* KUMBHER.

Khun.—Port and lighthouse in the Dhanduka Sub-division of Ahmadábád District, Bombay Presidency. The port is five miles east of Dholerá, on the Bhádar or Dholerá creek. DHOLERA town and the port of Khun were once connected by a tramway, which has now ceased to run. The lighthouse is at the entrance of the creek, in lat. 22° 3′ 20″ N., and long. 72° 17′ 30″ E. It is provided with a common lantern with five oil burners and reflectors fixed on a conical building on wooden piles. The lantern is 50 feet above high-water, and visible for 15 miles.

Khúnd (or *Kund*).—Valley in Kashmír State, Punjab, on the northern side of the Pír-Panjál Mountain. Lat. 33° 32′ N., long. 75° 10′ E. Thornton describes it as three miles long, picturesque, well cultivated, and possessing a cool climate. Elevation above sea-level, 6000 feet.

Khundalu.—Lake in Hindúr State, Punjab, among the range of hills extending from the Sutlej (Satlaj) to the Siwálik chain. Lat. 31° 10′ N., long. 76° 47′ E. Thornton states that it varies in length from 1½ mile in dry weather to 2½ miles during the rains; depth, 138 feet. Winding shore, enclosed by hills, and clothed with vegetation to the water's edge. Elevation above sea-level, about 2800 feet.

Khurdhá.—Sub-division of Purí District, Orissa; situated between 19° 40′ 30″ and 20° 25′ 15″ N. lat., and 85° 0′ 15″ and 85° 56′ E. long. Area, 943 square miles; with 1314 villages, and 30,237 houses. Population (1881) 323,405, namely, males 161,861, and females 161,544. Hindus numbered 316,285; Muhammadans, 6889; Christians, 230; Sikh, 1. Density of population, 343 persons per square mile; villages per square mile, 1·39; persons per village, 246; houses per square mile, 40; persons per house, 10·7. This Sub-division comprises the 2 police circles (*thánás*) of Khurdhá and Bánpur. It contained in 1883, 3 courts, with a regular police force of 114 officers and men, and a rural police or village watch numbering 407.

The estate or little principality of Khurdhá formed the last portion of territory held by the independent Hindu dynasty of Orissa. The Maráthá cavalry were unable to overrun this jungle-covered and hilly tract; and the ancient royal house retained much of its independence until 1804, when the Rájá rebelled against the British Government, and his territory was confiscated. A rising on the part of the peasantry took place in 1817–18, arising in great measure through the oppression of underling Bengali officials. The insurrection was speedily quelled, reforms were introduced, and grievances redressed. At the present day Khurdhá is a profitable and well-managed Government estate, and the cultivators are a contented and generally prosperous class. Since 1804, the Rájá has possessed no independent powers, but he was held in great veneration by the people as the hereditary guardian of the Jagannáth temple. The late holder of the title was convicted of wilful murder in 1878, and sentenced to penal servitude in the Andaman Islands.

Khurdhá.—Town in Purí District, Orissa, and head-quarters of Khurdhá Sub-division and police circle (*thánd*); situated on the high-road from Cuttack to Ganjám in Madras. Lat. 20° 10′ 49″ N., long. 85° 40′ 12″ E. Between 1818 and 1828, Khurdhá was the head-quarters of the District, which in the latter year was transferred to PURI TOWN.

Khúrja.—South-western *tahsíl* of Bulandshahr District, North-Western Provinces, comprising the *parganás* of Khúrja, Jewar, and Pahásu; stretching from the Jumna to the East Kálí Nadi, and traversed by the East Indian Railway, and by three branches of the Ganges Canal. Area, 460 square miles, of which 322 are cultivated. Population (1872) 221,712; (1881) 212,561, namely, males 112,716, and

females 99,845, showing a decrease of 9151, or 4·3 per cent., in nine years. Classified according to religion, there were, in 1881—Hindus, 175,702; Muhammadans, 36,624; Jains, 231; 'others,' 4. Land revenue (1872), £30,507; total Government revenue, £33,561; rental paid by cultivators, £69,619. In 1883, the Sub-division contained 1 civil and 4 criminal courts, with 4 police stations (*thánás*); strength of regular police, 48 men; village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 500.

Khúrja. — Town, municipality, and chief commercial centre of Bulandshahr District, North-Western Provinces, and head-quarters of Khúrja *tahsil*. Lat. 28° 15′ 25″ N., long. 77° 53′ 50″ E. Distant from Bulandshahr 10 miles south, from Alígarh 30 miles north, from Meerut (Merath) and Delhi 50 miles south and south-east respectively. Population (1872) 26,858; (1881) 27,190, namely, males 14,102, and females 13,088. Classified according to religion, the population in 1881 consisted of — Hindus, 16,145; Muhammadans, 10,990; and Jains, 55. Area of town site, 623 acres. Municipal income (1876-77), £1843; (1881), £2287, of which £1892 was derived from octroi; average incidence of taxation, 1s. 4⅝d. per head.

Khúrja is the chief trading town between Delhi and Háthras, and is particularly well situated for commercial purposes; railway station on the East Indian Railway 3½ miles south, and the meeting-place of the Delhi and Meerut (Merath) branches of the Grand Trunk Road. The principal inhabitants are Keshgi Patháns and Churúwál Baniyás; the latter, who are Jains by religion, are an enterprising and a wealthy class, carrying on banking over all India by means of paid agencies. They have recently built a handsome temple in the centre of the town, with a lofty dome surmounted by a gilded pinnacle. The interior is one blaze of gold and colour; the vault of the dome being painted and ornamented in the most florid style of Hindu decorative art. Among the recent improvements in the town are a fine masonry tank, 200 feet square, supplied with water from the Ganges Canal; and a market-place with handsome façades, a lofty gateway, a mosque in the centre of the square, and an adjoining *bázár*, all pointed with carved stone. The cost of the tank and aqueduct was about £1200; that of the market-place nearly £10,000. *Tahsíli*, police station, post-office, dispensary, town hall, *tahsíli* school. Chief trade in raw cotton, of which about 70,000 cwts. are annually exported to Cawnpur, Mírzápur, and Calcutta. A European cotton press was started in 1882. Imports of English piece-goods, metals, country cloth, and brass utensils. Local trade in cotton, safflower, indigo, sugar, molasses, grain, and *ghí*. The population has rapidly increased during the last thirty years.

Khusháb.—Western *tahsíl* of Sháhpur District, Punjab; consisting of that portion of the District lying west of the Jehlam (Jhelum) river.

Lat. 31° 31′ 45″ to 32° 41′ 30″ N., long. 71° 38′ 30″ to 72° 40′ 45″ E. The greater part is unproductive land, but a narrow strip along the edge of the river, exposed to its fertilizing inundations, produces good crops. The *tahsíl* is intersected by the great salt range of the Punjab. Area (1881), 1032 square miles, with 239 towns and villages, 22,874 houses, and 28,423 families. Total population (1881) 122,633, namely, males 64,585, and females 58,048; average density, 119 persons per square mile. Of the 239 towns and villages, 168 contain less than five hundred inhabitants; 46 from five hundred to a thousand; 23 from one to two thousand; while two towns (SHAHPUR and SHAHIWAL) have between five and ten thousand. Classified according to religion, the population in 1881 consisted of—Muhammadans, 101,831; Hindus, 19,304; Sikhs, 1481; and Christians, 17. Of the total area of 660,615 acres, 182,047 acres were returned in the quinquennial agricultural statistics of the Punjab Government as under cultivation in 1878–79, of which 175,957 acres were irrigated (9189 acres from Government works, and 166,768 acres by private individuals). The uncultivated area included 274,192 acres of grazing lands, 190,950 acres of cultivable land available for tillage, and 13,426 acres of uncultivable waste. The principal crops are wheat, *joár*, *bájra*, gram, and barley. Poppy is also grown to a considerable extent. Revenue, £14,432. The administrative staff consists of a *tahsíldár*, presiding over 1 civil and 1 criminal court. The *tahsíl* is sub-divided into six police circles (*thánás*), with 89 regular police, and 142 village watchmen.

Khusháb.—Town and municipality in Sháhpur District, Punjab, and head-quarters of Khusháb *tahsíl;* situated on the right bank of the river Jehlam (Jhelum), on the road from Lahore to Dera Ismáil Khán, about eight miles from Sháhpur town. Lat. 32° 17′ 40″ N., long. 72° 23′ 51″ E. Population (1868) 8509; (1881) 8989, namely, 6359 Muhammadans, 2402 Hindus, 227 Sikhs, and 1 'other.' Municipal revenue (1882–83), £919, or an average of 2s. 0½d. per head. Year by year the water eats away the bank of the Jehlam, so that the inhabitants are continually driven out of their homes and compelled to build on the farther side of the town, which has been several times washed away. Khusháb carries on a flourishing trade with Múltán (Mooltan), Sakkar, Afghánistán, and the Deraját. Exports of grain, cotton, wool, *ghí*, and country cloth; imports of English piece-goods, metal, dried fruits, sugar, and molasses. The town is also the chief mart for the trade of the salt range; numbers of cattle are employed in taking salt eastward, and bringing back rice and sugar. Manufacture of coarse cloth and cotton scarves; 600 weaving establishments. Silk-weaving is also a local industry, and the town has a name for its fine embroidered silk scarves. A canal 14 miles long, the Corbyn-wah, has

been cut from the Jehlam river, which affords irrigation to a large tract of country, and supplies the town of Khusháb with good water. This canal will fertilize a barren tract of country. The principal official buildings comprise a town hall, *tahsíli*, school, dispensary.

Khutáhan. — Northern *tahsíl* of Jaunpur District, North-Western Provinces, comprising the *parganás* of Ungli, Rári, Badlápur, Karyát-Mendha, and Chandah. Large tracts of barren *úsar* land are scattered over the *tahsíl*. Numerous tanks, wells, and ponds afford facilities for irrigation. The chief tanks are the masonry built Suraj-kund in Sarái-Khwája, the royal (*badsháhi*) tank in Manicha, the viceregal (*wazíri*) tank, and a masonry tank at Sháhganj. Population (1872) 237,536; (1881) 268,901, namely, males 136,237, and females 132,664; total increase in the nine years, 31,365, or 13·4 per cent. Classified according to religion, there were in 1881—Hindus, 231,750; Muhammadans, 37,148; and 'others,' 3. Of the 697 villages, 537 contained less than five hundred inhabitants; 117 between five hundred and a thousand; and 43 between one and five thousand. The only town with upwards of five thousand inhabitants is SHAHGANJ (population, 6317). The area of Khutáhan *tahsíl*, according to the latest official returns (1881), is 367 square miles, of which 359·8 square miles are assessed for Government revenue. Assessed area under cultivation, 209·9 square miles; cultivable, but not under tillage, 64·1 square miles; uncultivable waste, 85·8 square miles. Government land revenue, £22,583; total Government revenue, including local rates and cesses, £27,651. Amount of rent, including rates and cesses, paid by the cultivators, £51,705. Means of communication are afforded by the Gúmtí river, which flows across the *tahsíl* in a south-easterly direction; by the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway, which runs through its entire eastern tract, with four stations; and by numerous roads. In 1884, Khutáhan *tahsíl* contained 3 criminal courts, 4 police stations (*thánás*), with a regular police force of 59 men, supplemented by 526 village watchmen (*chaukídárs*).

Khutáhan.—Village in Jaunpur District, North-Western Provinces, and head-quarters of Khutáhan *tahsíl;* situated on the left bank of the Gúmtí river, 18 miles north-north-west of Jaunpur town. Lat. 25° 58′ 7″ N., long. 82° 36′ 58″ E. The village, which has a population of only 930 souls, is of no importance save as the head-quarters of the *tahsíl*, which were removed here on the destruction of the former *tahsíli* at Tighra by the mutineers in January 1858. The village contains a first-class police station and an imperial post-office; bi-weekly market held on Wednesdays and Saturdays.

Khutgáon. — *Zamíndári* estate in Chánda District, Central Provinces; 20 miles south-east of Wairágarh; comprising 42 villages, spread over an area of 157 square miles. Number of houses, 692.

Population (1881) 3614. Khutgáon village is situated in lat. 20° 11′ N., long. 80° 14′ E.

Khwa.—River and town, British Burma.—*See* KWA.

Khyoung-tshún.—Village in Bílú-gywon island, Amherst District, British Burma.—*See* KYAUNG-SUN.

Khyrim (or *Nong Khrem*).—Petty State in the Khási Hills, Assam, presided over by a *siem* or chief named U Klur Singh. Population (1881) 24,425; estimated revenue, £820. The minerals are lime, coal, and iron. The iron-ore of Khyrim is the purest found in the Khási Hills. In former times, smelting operations were conducted on a large scale, as evidenced by the deep excavations and large heaps of slag. The greater part of the smelted iron used to be exported to the plains in lumps or bars, and was more highly valued than English iron by native smiths. Under the competition of the cheaper article from England, this trade has now died out; but at the present day, iron implements, such as *dáos* or hill-knives, *kodális* or mattocks, hammers, crow-bars, and wedges, are still manufactured and exported to Sylhet. Other manufactures are the weaving of cotton and *eriá* silk cloth, and the making of mats and baskets. The cultivated crops are rice, millet, cotton, potatoes, oranges, chillies, betel-nut, and *pán* leaves. The wild products gathered in the jungle include caoutchouc, cinnamon, lac, black pepper, and honey.

Kiámári. — Island on the further side of Karáchi (Kurrachee) harbour, Karáchi District, Sind, Bombay Presidency; lying in lat. 24° 49′ 15″ N., and long. 67° 2′ E., and forming one of the municipal quarters of KARACHI TOWN, with which it is connected by a road called the 'Napier Mole,' 3 miles long, constructed in 1854. Kiámári is the landing-place for passengers and goods destined for Karáchi, and contains 3 piers, the principal of which is the Merewether pier, called after the late Sir William Merewether, who was for many years Commissioner in Sind; the foundation-stone was laid by Lord Ripon in November 1880. There are here a commissariat store, customs house, naval building-yard, etc. Station on the Sind, Punjab, and Delhi Railway.

Kiching.—Village in Morbhanj State, Orissa, Bengal; situated in lat. 21° 55′ 30″ N., and long. 85° 52′ 30″ E., in a jungly tract in the south of the State. It is now inhabited only by aboriginal Kols; but ruined temples, tanks, and other architectural remains point to a more civilised population in ancient days. Two of the temples at Kiching are still visited by pilgrims, and are kept in some repair. The surrounding jungle is thickly scattered with fragments of elaborately sculptured idols, and human figures in alto-relievo. The two temples are said to have formed part of a series of 60 similar ones, placed 2 miles apart in a circle 40 miles in diameter, of which only these and some others at Udaipur on the Baitaraní are now visited.

Kidderpur.—Village on the left bank of the Húglí, immediately south of Calcutta, in the District of the Twenty-four Parganás, Bengal. Lat. 22° 32′ 25″ N., long. 88° 22′ 18″ E. The seat of the Government dockyard, constructed in the last century by General Kyd, after whom the village is named. Between 1781 and 1821, 237 ships were built at the Kidderpur docks, at a cost of upwards of two millions sterling; and in 1818, the *Hastings*, a 74-gun ship, was launched here. The India General Steam Navigation Company have also a dock at Kidderpur, but neither this nor the Government yard is now used for shipbuilding, but merely for repairs, fitting out, etc.

Kiggat-nad.—*Táluk* or Sub-division in Coorg, Southern India. Bounded on the north by Merkára *táluk;* on the south-west and south by Malabár District and the Wynád; and on the east by Mysore State. Area, 410 square miles; number of villages, 49; number of houses, 3548. Population (1871) 27,738; (1881) 31,230, namely, 16,991 males and 14,239 females, of whom 6555 are Coorgs. Kiggat-nad occupies the south-east corner of Coorg, and is the most sparsely populated *táluk* in the territory. It is watered by the Lakshmantirtha and Barapole rivers, and contains 181 square miles of forest, of which the most valuable portion is the reserved teak forest of Nalkeri, whence timber is carted to Mysore. Rice is cultivated along the narrow valleys of the hill streams. The whole area is mountainous, being traversed by spurs of the Brahmagiri range, which abound in *sámbhar* deer, and are the favourite resort of sportsmen. Coffee estates have been opened out on the rich black soil of the northern portion of the *táluk*, which is traversed by the Mysore-Cannanore road. Another road leads from Gonikopal to the Wynád. The head-quarters of Kiggat-nad are at HUDIKERI, lat. 12° 6′ N., long. 76° 1′ E.

Kílákarai (the *Korkhoi* of the Periplus).—Seaport in Rámnád *zamíndárí*, Madura District, Madras Presidency; situated in lat. 9° 14′ 20″ N., and long. 78° 50′ 10″ E., near the mouth of the Gundár. Population (1871) 11,303; (1881) 11,887, namely, 5029 males and 6858 females. Muhammadans numbered 8274; Hindus, 2926; and Christians, 687. Number of houses, 2749. Average value of imports for the five years ending 1882–83, £32,445, and exports, £16,595. In 1882–83 the imports were valued at £19,253, and the exports at £14,088. Kílákarai is supposed by some authorities to have been Kurkhi, the earliest capital of the Pándyas. One account would assign its foundation to the Chola, Chera, and Pándya kings, who joined in building it to commemorate the place where a great rain-storm detained them for a month, when on their way to celebrate the marriage of a Pándya prince.

Kilang.—Village in Kángra District, Punjab.—*See* KOLANG.

Kilá Sobha Singh.—Town in the Pasrúr *tahsíl* of Siálkot District,

Punjab; 23 miles south-east of Siálkot town. Lat. 32° 14′ N., long. 74° 48′ 15″ E. Population (1868) 5153; (1881) 4521, namely, 1768 Hindus, 2734 Muhammadans, and 19 Sikhs. Founded about a century ago by Alawalia Sardár Bhág Singh, who erected a mud fort and called it after his son Sobha Singh. Residence of a colony of Kashmírí shawl-weavers, who manufacture edging for exportation to Amritsar (Umritsar). Of late years many silk factories have been established, and the industry is in a promising condition. Exports of sugar, grain, and other local produce. The public buildings consist of a police station, dispensary, post-office, and a boys' and a girls' school. Municipal revenue in 1881-82, £366, or 1s. 7$\frac{3}{7}$d. per head of population within municipal limits.

Kiling (or *Um-iám*).—River of Assam, which rises in the Khási Hills, not far to the west of the Shillong peak, and flowing north-east into Nowgong District, empties into the Kapili river a short distance before that stream falls into the Kalang near Jági. Its bed is rocky throughout its entire course, but in the plains it is navigable by boats of 4 tons burthen during the greater part of the year. Um-iám is the Khási name of the river; in Nowgong it is called the Kiling.

Kiliyar.—River in Travancore State, Madras Presidency.

Killiánwála.—Battle-field in Gujrát District, Punjab.—*See* CHILIANWALA.

Kilpuri.—Eastern *tahsíl* of the Tarái District, North-Western Provinces, consisting of a long submontane belt, much of it covered with forest. Area, 413 square miles, of which 79 are cultivated. Population (1872) 51,480; (1881) 48,990, namely, males 27,051, and females 21,939. Land revenue, £2193.

Kimedi.—*Zamíndárí* hill tract, on the western border of Ganjám District, Madras Presidency. It contains the three estates of PARLA KIMEDI; PEDDA or BODA KIMEDI, also called Vizianágram; and CHINNA KIMEDI or Pratápgiri. Each estate consists of two distinct divisions, a lowland and an upland tract; the former held as an ordinary *zamíndárí* under the regular District officers, while the latter is under the supervision of a special Government Agency.

Parlá Kimedi is the largest *zamíndárí* in the District. It contains an area of 410 square miles, exclusive of about 354 square miles of *Máliyas* or hill country. Population of lowland tract (1871) 227,482; (1881) 240,980, namely, 120,487 males and 120,493 females; villages, 723; houses, 50,708. Hindus numbered 240,266; Muhammadans, 497; Christians, 118; and 'others,' 99. In 1881 the *Máliyas* contained 342 villages, with a population of 39,152, namely, 20,218 males and 18,934 females, occupying 8936 houses. Hindus numbered 38,952, chiefly Savars; and Muhammadans, 200. The *peshkash*, or permanent assessment, of Parlá Kimedi is £8783. The estate yields an annual revenue of £45,318 to the *zamíndár*.

Pedda Kimedi, which is situated north of Parlá Kimedi, pays a *peshkash* of £2332, and yields an annual revenue of £10,087. The Census returns of 1881 do not show the figures of Pedda Kimedi *zamíndárí;* those of 1871 gave the area as 195 square miles; villages, 194; population, 40,650. In 1881, the *Máliyas* or hill tract of Pedda Kimedi contained 260 villages, with a population of 26,605, namely, 13,665 males and 12,940 females, occupying 5416 houses. Hindus numbered 26,563, mostly Kandhs; Muhammadans, 41; and Christian, 1. Area, about 377 square miles.

Chinna Kimedi, the most northern division, pays a *peshkash* of £1994, and yields an annual revenue of £11,641. Area of lowlands, 56 square miles, with 131 villages, containing 6665 houses. Population (1871) 28,491; (1881) 35,954, namely, 17,851 males and 18,103 females. Hindus numbered 35,926; and Muhammadans, 28. The extensive *Máliyas* (about 1975 square miles) attached to Chinna Kimedi have been resumed by the British Government, and their ancient feudal connection with the *zamíndár* has ceased. In 1881, these *Máliyas* contained 138 villages, with a population of 11,849, namely, 6254 males and 5595 females, occupying 2671 houses. Hindus numbered 11,835, principally Kandhs; Muhammadans, 11; and Christians, 3.

The whole Kimedi country was ruled from a remote date by a descendant of the royal house of Orissa. In 1607, the then Kimedi Rájá allotted Vizianágram and Pratápgiri to his younger son Unanga Bhíma Deo Kesári, whose descendants divided the estate into two *zamíndárís*, which were temporarily reunited under Bhíma Deo, who proved very troublesome to the British Resident. Troops were sent against him in 1769, and his fort at Karla was taken. The following year, in consequence of his suspected intrigues with Sítaráma Rázu (of Vizianágram in Vizagapatam District) and the Maráthás, Pratápgiri, his principal stronghold, was seized. On this, the old Rájá accepted the terms offered him; but in 1772 it was again found necessary to enter the country. After a hard-fought contest, the British gained possession of all his forts, and the Rájá had to submit to strict conditions, including the partition of his estate between his two sons. This arrangement was fraught with most disastrous consequences to the country, for it led to internecine struggles, lasting for a quarter of a century. The brothers ravaged one another's territory, and burnt one another's villages, till in 1800 they were both thrown into jail in Ganjám for disturbing the peace. They were replaced by their respective sons, who carried on the feud; and until very recently, although open hostilities were impossible, the feeling of hatred continued. The country is now peaceful and flourishing, and connected by road with

the coast. The principal towns are Parlá Kimedi, Digupadi, and Pudamari.

Kimiriá.—A deltaic distributary of the Bráhmaní river, Cuttack District, Orissa, which branches off opposite the village of Rájendrapur, and, after receiving the waters of the Gengutí, Kelo, and Birúpa, falls again into the parent stream at the village of Indpur.

Kimlia.—Pass in Bashahr State, Punjab, over the outer Himálayan range, bounding Kunáwár to the north. Lat. 31° 14′ N., long. 78° 28′ E. Thornton states that it can be crossed only during the months of May, June, and July; later in the year, the snow becomes treacherous, swallowing pack-sheep and goats, with their drivers. Elevation above sea-level, about 17,000 feet.

Kinhi.—*Zamíndárí* estate in Bálághát District, Central Provinces; comprising 64 villages, on an area of 159 square miles, partly above and partly below the hills. Kinhi, the chief village, is situated in lat. 21° 37′ N., and long. 80° 29′ E., 25 miles south-east of Búrha. The present chiefs trace their descent from the head herdsman of the Gond and Bhonsla kings of Nágpur, who tended the royal flocks on the upland pastures of Lánjí. Since the estate was divided into eight shares, its value has greatly decreased.

Kin-rwa.—Village in the Kin-rwa revenue circle, Shwe-gyin District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. Government rest-house; small police force. Population (1877) 1349; (1881) 1107, chiefly engaged in orchard cultivation. Number of houses, 211. Prior to annexation, a small Burmese military force was stationed here. The word 'Keng' or 'Kin' means a military station. The termination *rwa* is simply 'village.'

Kirákat (*Karákat*).—Eastern *tahsíl* of Jaunpur District, North-Western Provinces, lying on either side of the river Gúmti, and comprising the *parganás* of Chandwak, Daryápur, Pisára, and Gujára. Bounded on the north by Azamgarh District; on the east by Azamgarh and Gházípur Districts; on the south by Benares District; and on the west by Jaunpur *tahsíl*. In the south-east of the *tahsíl* are wide tracts of uncultivable *úsar* plains, and glass is largely produced from the saline efflorescence (*reh*) which covers them. There are no lakes in the *tahsíl*. Water is found at a depth of from 28 to 40 feet, and wells and tanks are numerous. The Grand Trunk Road from Azamgarh to Benares passes through the east of the *tahsíl* from north to south, and several other roads afford communication with Kirákat, the head-quarters town. Total area, according to the latest official report (1881), 171 square miles, of which 120·6 square miles are cultivated, 34·7 square miles cultivable, and 15·7 square miles barren. The area assessed for Government revenue is 166·6 square miles, of which 116·2 square miles are cultivable. Government land revenue, £11,695; total Government revenue, including local rates and cesses,

£14,255. Amount of rental, including rates and cesses, paid by cultivators, £31,444. Population (1872) 114,167; (1881) 136,748, namely, males 68,806, and females 67,942, showing an increase of 22,581, or 19·8 per cent., in nine years. Classified according to religion, there were, in 1881—Hindus, 128,905; Muhammadans, 7840; and 'others,' 3. Of the 324 villages, 223 contained less than five hundred inhabitants; 71 between five hundred and a thousand; and 30 between one thousand and five thousand. There were no towns containing more than five thousand inhabitants. Of the total population, 2557 are returned as landholders, 27,068 as agriculturists, and 12,610 as engaged in occupations other than agriculture. The majority of the cultivators belong to the Rájput, Koerí, Ahír, and Chamár castes. In 1884 the *tahsíl* contained 2 criminal courts, 2 police circles (*thánás*), a regular police force of 36 men, and a village watch of 187 *chaukídárs.*

Kirákat.—Town in Jaunpur District, North-Western Provinces, and head-quarters of Kirákat *tahsíl.* Situated on the north or left bank of the Gúmti, distant 16 miles south-east of Jaunpur city, with which it is connected by an unmetalled road. Lat. 25° 38′ 5″ N., long. 82° 57′ 41″ E. Population (1881) 3251, namely, males 1577, and females 1674. A house-tax, for police and conservancy purposes, realized £93 in 1882–83. Kirákat is a long narrow town, with a main road running east and west, parallel with the Gúmti. Besides the usual sub-divisional courts and offices, it contains an Anglo-vernacular school, imperial post-office, and first-class police station. Bi-weekly market on Wednesdays and Saturdays.

Kíratpur.—Town in Najíbábád *tahsíl*, Bijnaur (Bijnor) District, North-Western Provinces, situated 10 miles from Bijnaur town, at the junction of the unmetalled roads from Bijnaur and Mandáwár to Najíbábád. Lat. 29° 30′ 5″ N., long. 78° 15′ 5″ E. Population (1872) 9579; (1882) 12,728, namely, males 6347, and females 6381. Classified according to religion, there were, in 1881—Muhammadans, 8370; Hindus, 4350; and Christians, 8. Area of town site, 236 acres. A small municipal revenue for police and conservancy purposes is raised by means of a house-tax. The town was founded about the year 1450, in the reign of Bahlol Lodi; and the ruins of the old castle or fort still exist, though fast falling to decay. Walls of great strength are yet standing on either side of the main gateway, within which is a handsome and well-preserved mosque. Kíratpur is now merely an agricultural centre, of purely local importance, with a petty manufacture of lacquered wooden work.

Kirki (*Kirkee* or *Khakdi*).—Town and cantonment in the Haveli Sub-division of Poona (Púna) District, Bombay Presidency. Station on the south-east extension of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway, 116

miles south-east of Bombay and 4 north-west of Poona; lat. 18° 33′ N., and long. 73° 54′ E. On the 5th November 1817, the first of three battles which led to the collapse of the Maráthá power was fought near Kirki, then a mere village. The British force under Colonel Burr was 2800 strong, of whom 800 were Europeans. The Peshwá's force under Bappu Goklá numbered 18,000 horse and 8000 foot, with an immense train of ordnance. The Peshwá Bájí Ráo witnessed the battle, and his own defeat, from Párbatti hill, one mile south of Poona. Population (1871) 3098; (1881) 7252, namely, 3899 males and 3353 females. Hindus numbered 4938; Christians, 1246; Muhammadans, 893; Jains, 107; Pársís, 35; and 'others,' 33. Post-office.

Kirli.—A petty State in Khándesh District, Bombay Presidency.—*See* DANG STATES.

Kirnápur.—Estate in Burhá *tahsíl*, Bálaghát District, Central Provinces. Population (1881) 12,667, namely, males 6214, and females 6453; residing in 29 villages, on an area of 40 square miles, and inhabiting 2751 houses. Conferred in 1828 upon Chimná Patel, the once powerful possessor of Kámtha and the surrounding *táluks*. Kirnápur, the principal town, and residence of the chief, stands on high ground, in lat. 21° 39′ N., and long. 80° 22′ E., 16 miles south-east of Búrha, and contains some ancient temples. It has a good Government school, and a police outpost, and the District post to Lánjí passes daily.

Kirran (or *Sáki*).—River in Gurdáspur and Amritsar (Umritsar) Districts, Punjab; rises in lat. 32° 8′ N., and long. 75° 30′ E., in the extensive swamps of Bahrampur, west of Dínanagar in the former District, and runs parallel with the Rávi until it passes into Amritsar. It flows past the towns of Rámdás and Ajnála, and joins the Rávi in lat. 31° 45′ N., and long. 74° 37′ E., near the village of Mirowál, just above the bridge of boats on the Amritsar and Gujránwála road. It never runs absolutely dry, but contains little water, except in the rainy season.

Kirthál.—Village in Meerut (Merath) District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 29° 14′ 15″ N., and long. 77° 17′ 15″ E.; 24 miles north-west of Meerut city. Population (1872) 5651; (1881) 5516, namely, Hindus, 4415; Muhammadans, 827; and Jains, 274. The village stands on a raised site, bounded on the west by a lake or marsh, having a depth of 10 feet in January. A cut drains the surplus water into the Jumna (Jamuná). Few trees, no *bázár*, unmade and broken roadways, damp situation, defective sanitary arrangements. Inhabitants suffer from enlarged spleen and other malarious diseases.

Kirtinása.—River in Dacca District, Bengal; one of the main channels by which the Ganges now finds its way into the Meghná.

In Rennel's map of the last century, the Ganges is shown as joining the Meghná at Mehndiganj, considerably to the south of the Kirtinása. But the Kirtinása is now the principal channel of the Ganges, branching off near Rájnagar, and falling into the Meghná, in lat. 23° 14′ N., and long. 90° 37′ E., near Kártikpur. The Kirtinása has a width of from 3 to 4 miles, with a strong current, which renders navigation difficult during the rains. The original bed of the Ganges is now almost dry in the hot season.

Kishangarh (*Krishnagarh*).—Native State under the political superintendence of the Eastern States Agency of Rájputána; situated between lat. 26° 17′ and 26° 59′ N., long. 74° 43′ and 75° 13′ E. The area is 724 square miles, and the population in 1881 was returned at 112,633, namely, 59,098 males and 53,535 females; dwelling in 3 towns and 210 villages, and occupying 24,928 houses. Persons per square mile, 155·5; per house, 4·5. Hindus numbered 97,846; Muhammadans, 8492; and Jains, 6295. Taking the Hindu population by caste, there are—Bráhmans, 14,154; Rájputs, 8054; Mahájans, 10,599; Játs, 10,458; Balais, 7177; Chamárs, 3807; Gújars, 7201; and 'other Hindus,' 42,701. Divided into their tribes, the Muhammadans are thus returned—Patháns, 1308; Sayyids, 265; and 'others,' 6919. The Census distributes the adult male population into the following groups as regards occupation—Agriculture, 13,436; day-labour, 4946; handicraft, 5396; service, 5038; miscellaneous, 4630; and no occupation, 3034: total, 36,480. The principal towns are KISHANGARH (the capital), RUPNAGAR, and SARWAR.

History.—The founder of the State was Kishan Singh, the second son of Mahárájá Udai Singh of Jodhpur, who, leaving his patrimony, conquered the tract of country which now comprises Kishangarh, and became its ruler under the sign-manual of the Emperor Akbar in 1594. There is little of importance known regarding the affairs of the State until 1818, when a treaty was entered into by the British Government with Kishangarh, together with the other Rájput States, as part of a general scheme for the suppression of the Pindárí marauders, by whom the country was at that time overrun. This treaty contains the usual conditions of protection on the part of the British Government, and subordinate co-operation and abstinence from political correspondence on the part of the chief.

The Mahárájá Kalyán Singh, who was supposed to be insane, soon became involved in troubles with his nobles, which eventually resulted in his flight to Delhi. Affairs grew worse at Kishangarh, and British territory having been violated by the disputants, the leaders of both parties were called upon to desist from hostilities, and to refer their grievances to the mediation of the Government of India. The Mahárájá was at the same time warned that, if he did not return to his capital and interest him-

self in the affairs of the State, the treaty with him would be abrogated and engagements formed with the insurgent Thákurs. This threat brought the Mahárájá back to Kishangarh, but, finding himself unable to govern the State, he offered to lease it to Government. His offer was refused. The Mahárájá on this took up his residence at Ajmere. The nobles then proclaimed the heir-apparent as Mahárájá, and laid siege to the capital, which they were on the point of carrying when Kalyán Singh accepted the mediation of the Political Agent, through whom matters were for the time adjusted.

The reconciliation, however, did not prove sincere, and Kalyán Singh shortly afterwards abdicated in favour of his son, Makhdúm Singh, by whom the late Mahárájá, Dhiráj Prithwi Singh Bahádur, was adopted. Prithwi Singh succeeded in 1840; and the administration, which was under his personal guidance, was conducted with prudence, and more than average ability. He died on the 25th December 1879, leaving three sons, and was succeeded by the eldest, the present Mahárájá Sádul Singh, who was born about 1854. The chief possesses the right of adoption, and is entitled to a salute of 15 guns.

Revenue, Agriculture, etc.—The produce of the State consists mainly of cereals. Its revenue in 1881 was £27,511. The customs receipts, which formed a large portion of the revenue, were chiefly derived from the Sámbhar lake salt traffic. These receipts, however, owing to the introduction of railway communication into Rájputána, and the abandonment of duty on all through traffic, having become greatly diminished, the Government of India agreed to compensate the Mahárájá by a money payment of £2000 per annum. The Rájputána State Railway, constructed on the metre gauge, passes through the northern portion of the State. The Nasírábád-Deoli road also traverses the State.

Kishangarh pays no tribute, and contributes nothing to any local corps or contingent. The military force consists of 550 cavalry, 3500 infantry, 36 guns, and 100 artillerymen.

Kishangarh.—Chief town of the State of Kishangarh, Rájputána, and a station on the Rájputána-Málwá State Railway; situated in lat. 26° 35′ N., and long. 74° 55′ E., about 21 miles north-east of Nasírábád (Nusseerábád). Population (1881) 14,824, namely, 7513 males and 7311 females. Hindus number 9760; Muhammadans, 3140; and 'others,' 1924.

The town and fort of Kishangarh occupy a picturesque position on the banks of a small lake, called Gúndoláo, in the centre of which is the Muhkum Bilás, or Mahárájá's summer garden. The principal temples in the town are Brijráj-ji-ká-Mandír, and those dedicated to Mohan Lál Jí, Madan Mohan Jí, Narsingh Jí, and Chintámán Jí. At Salímábád, about 12 miles from Kishangarh, is a temple known as Ním Marag Samparda, which is an object of pilgrimage at all seasons to the natives of the surrounding districts.

The town contains a number of banking houses, and the principal industrial occupations of the people are the manufacture of cloth, the cutting of precious stones, and the manufacture of drinking vessels of *khas-khas*. There is a post-office, a *dharmsálá* for the reception of native travellers, and a staging bungalow near the railway station, outside of the city; but European visitors are usually accommodated in the Phúl-Mahal, a garden-house belonging to the Mahárájá, on the borders of the lake immediately below the palace. This last building is the highest and most conspicuous part of the fort, and commands a magnificent view over the surrounding country. An Anglo-vernacular school, founded by the Mahárájá in 1882, is largely attended.

Kishenganj (properly, *Krishnaganj*).—Village and head-quarters of a police circle (*thánd*) in Bhágalpur District, Bengal; situated 33 miles north of Bhágalpur town. Lat. 25° 41′ 10″ N., long. 86° 59′ 20″ E. Contains the second largest market in the District, at which a considerable retail trade is carried on. Government distillery. Population (1872) 1150 males and 1130 females; total, 2280. Not separately returned in the Census of 1881.

Kishni.—Town in Sultánpur District, Oudh; situated in lat. 26° 35′ N., and long. 81° 41′ E., on the right bank of the river Gúmti, occupying a high plateau surrounded by ravines. Founded about 400 years ago, by Rájá Kishan Chand, ancestor of the Mandarik Rájputs, whose capital it remained until they lost their independence. Kishni contained (1869) 532 houses and 2297 inhabitants. Not separately returned in the Census Report of 1881. Chief building, a mosque built in the reign of Alamgír.

Kisoriganj.—Sub-division of Maimansingh District, Bengal. Lat. 24° 2′ 30″ to 24° 49′ 30″ N., and long. 90° 38′ to 91° 18′ E. Area, 744 square miles. Population (1872) 362,436; (1881) 467,320, namely, males 233,022, and females 234,298, showing an increase of 104,884, or 28·94 per cent. in nine years. Classified according to religion, the population in 1881 consisted of—Muhammadans, 292,479; Hindus, 174,808; and Christians, 33. Number of towns and villages, 1682; houses, 83,812. Proportion of males, 49·8 per cent.; density of population, 628·12 persons per square mile; villages per square mile, 2·26; persons per village, 277; houses per square mile, 119·04; persons per house, 5·58. This Sub-division, which was constituted in 1860, consists of the 3 police circles (*thánás*) of Kisoriganj, Niklí, and Bájitpur. In 1883 it contained a Deputy Magistrate and Collector's court, and 2 *munsifs'* courts, a regular police of 72 men, besides a village watch of 947.

Kisoriganj.—Town, municipality and head-quarters of Kisoriganj Sub-division and police circle, Maimansingh District, Bengal; situated

on the Kundálí *khál*, 13 miles east of the Brahmaputra. Lat. 24° 26′ 20″ N., long. 90° 48′ 40′ E. Population (1872) 13,637; (1881) 12,898, namely, Hindus, 5587, and Muhammadans, 7311. The town is a second-class municipality, with an income in 1883-84 of £365, of which £312 was derived from taxation; average incidence of taxation, 5⅝d. per head of the population (13,114) within municipal limits. Kisoriganj is connected with the Brahmaputra by a road, and also by the Kundálí *khál*, which, however, is only navigable during the rainy months. A fair is held here annually during the Jhulan *jatra*, a festival in honour of the birth of Krishna, lasting for a month, from the middle of July to the middle of August.

Kisoriganj.—Market village in Rangpur District, Bengal; situated on or near the Sankos river. Exports of rice, jute, and tobacco.

Kistawár.—Town in Kashmír State, Northern India, and former capital of a small principality. Situated in lat. 33° 18′ 30″ N., long. 75° 48′ E.; on the southern slope of the Himálayas, near the left bank of the Chenáb (Chináb), which here forces its way through a gorge with precipitous cliffs some 1000 feet in height. Ill-built houses; small *bázár*; fort. Manufacture of inferior shawls and coarse woollens. Elevation above sea-level, about 5000 feet.

Kistna (*Krishna*).—A British District in the Madras Presidency. It lies along the coast of the Bay of Bengal at the mouth of the river Kistna or Krishna, which gives it the name it bears; between lat. 15° 35′ and 17° 10′ N., and between 79° 14′ and 81° 34′ E. Bounded on the north by Godávari District; on the east by the Bay of Bengal; on the south by Nellore; and on the west by the Nizám's Dominions and Karnúl (Kurnool). The District was formed in 1859 by the amalgamation of the two Collectorates of Guntúr and Masulipatam, a small portion of the latter being assigned to Godávari District. Prior to 1859 there had been in existence the three Districts of Guntúr, Masulipatam, and Rájámandri (Rájáhmundry); but these were afterwards consolidated into the two Districts of Kistna and Godávari, each containing its own irrigation system, constructed in the deltas of the two rivers which give their names to the Districts. Area, 8471 square miles, or about the size of Wales. Population (1881) 1,548,480 persons. The administrative head-quarters are at MASULIPATAM.

Physical Aspects.—Kistna District is, speaking generally, a flat country; but the interior is broken by a few low hills, the chief of which are Bellamkondá, Kondavír, Kondapallí, Jamalavayadurga, and Medurghát, the highest being 1876 feet above sea-level. The principal rivers are the KISTNA (*q.v.*), which cuts the District into two portions known as the Masulipatam and Guntúr divisions; the Munyeru, Paleru, and Naguleru (tributaries of the Kistna), and the Gundlakamma; the first only is practicable for navigation. The KOLAR (Koller) LAKE, which covers

an area of 21 by 14 miles, and the Romperu swamp, are natural receptacles for the drainage on the north and south sides of the Kistna respectively. Koller Lake is navigable from June or July, according to the setting in of the heavy rains, till February. The whole coast is fringed with ridges of blown sand, the most recent formation in the District. These ridges or sandhills attain a height of from 30 to 50 feet, and the belt of sand is sometimes more than a mile in width. In some places the sand is bound by spinifex, ipomœa, and other plants, while in some nooks grow cashew-nut bushes (Anacardium occidentale). Plantations of the casuarina trees are being extended on these sands.

The geological survey of the District is completed. Iron and copper exist, and at one time the mines were worked; but the smelting of copper is now a thing of the past, and that of iron is also dying out. Diamond mines are still worked, to a very slight extent, in five bordering villages belonging to the Nizám; and at other places in the District there are traces of mines which were abandoned long ago. Garnets and small rubies are also found. The most trustworthy account of the Kistna diamond mines is that of the French jeweller, Tavernier, who made six journeys to India to purchase precious stones. At one mine he visited, he relates that he found 60,000 people at work. From these mines were obtained the Koh-i-núr and the Regent diamonds.

A few tigers and leopards are found in the Kondavír and Kondapallí Hills, and in the hilly part of the Nuzvír *zamíndárí* and the Palnád; antelopes in the plain; and spotted deer and *sámbhar*. Every variety of the game birds of India, except the pheasant, woodcock, and hill partridge, abounds in the District; and almost all the known inland aquatic birds are found on the Kolár (Koller) Lake, when it is full. The most deadly of poisonous snakes, the Russell viper (Daboia russellii), the cobra (Naja tripudians), carpet snake (Echis carinata), and one kind of *karait* (Bungarus arcuatus), are also met with.

Forests.—There is now very little forest within the limits of the District, though formerly the hills of the remote Palnád were covered with timber. A small revenue of £1368, derived from jungle conservancy, is spent in planting groves, etc. Soap-nut jungle (Sapindus emarginatus) is found in the Bápatla and Gudiváda *táluks*. Repalle *táluk* supplies firewood to Masulipatam. A plantation of casuarina trees in the barren sandy wastes on the coast of Bápatla *táluk* lost 10,000 trees in the cyclone of 1879; the trees were sold as they lay for 3d. each, and fetched 1s. each when brought by sea to Madras. The chief obstacle to the formation of forest reserve is the Opuntia vulgaris or prickly-pear cactus. As is the case with most hill forts in India, custard-apple trees are found near the old strongholds of Konda-

pallí, Kondavír, and Bellam Konda. Generally speaking, the District is bare of trees.

History.—The history of Kistna District may be divided into four periods: — the early or Hindu period; the Muhammadan period; the French period; and the period of British administration. The early history of the District is inseparable from that of the NORTHERN CIRCARS and GODAVARI DISTRICT. The earliest tribes to settle in the forests that once covered the District, were the hunters, whose representatives still survive as the Chentsus and Yerikalas. For some time before and after the Christian era, Buddhism was firmly established on the banks of the Kistna. The Bráhmans were invited in the third century A.D. The kingdom of Andra, with its capital Vengi, is mentioned by Hiuen Tsiang, the Chinese pilgrim, who came to India in 640 A.D. to visit its Buddhist monasteries. By that time the Pallava kings of Vengi had been conquered by the Chálukyan kings of Kalyánpur. The Chálukyan kings were succeeded by Chola kings from the south, and in the Guntúr country are found traces of the rule of Chola viceroys. The Jain kings of Dharnikota were the next, if not contemporary, rulers. And it was during the Jain *régime* in 1290 that the Venetian, Marco Polo, landed at a fishing village in the Bápatla *táluk* of this District. The Reddi kings of Kondavír shortly afterwards divided the sovereignty of the country with Orissa Rájás from Bengal. Reddi kings reigned from 1328 to 1424. The Gajapatis of Orissa, who succeeded the Reddi dynasty, went down before the great Karnátik kingdom of Vijayanagar. With the capture of the Kondavír fortress in 1579, the Hindu rule of Vijayanagar gave place to the Muhammadan conquerors.

The first Musalmán king to enter Kistna District was Muhammad Sháh, second of the Báhmani line; and a general delegated by him, with the title of Nizám-ul-Mulk, established a Muhammadan garrison in the fort of Kondapallí. On the fall of the Báhmanis and the partition of their kingdom into the five States of Bijápur, Bídar, Berár, Ahmadnagar, and Golconda, the region round Kondapallí fell to the share of Golconda. A series of attempts made by the neighbouring Rájás to wrest the District from Musalmán hands were all attended with failure. From this time until 1759, when the British received Masulipatam and other portions of the District, the reign of Muhammadan princes was only disturbed by the occurrences which took place in what has been called the French period.

In 1611, the English and Dutch were engaged in trade at the Kistna ports of Masulipatam and Nizámapatam. In 1686, Masulipatam was seized by the Dutch. Three years afterwards (1689), the Dutch were expelled by the forces of Aurangzeb, and the District was included in one of the twenty-two Provinces of the Mughal Empire. From the

death of Aurangzeb in 1707 until the British took possession half a century later, Kistna District formed part of the Subah of the Deccan; and it was during the Subahdárship of the last Muhammadan viceroy, Salábat Jang, that the incidents of the French period occurred.

The French period is remarkable for the first active interference of a European in the internal politics of the Deccan. In 1741, Monsieur Dupleix was governor of Pondicherri, and in 1750 French troops stormed and took Masulipatam. A few months later was fought the battle in which Násir Jang, then Subahdár of the Deccan, was slain. Muzaffar Jang was by French aid installed at Haidarábád. Salábat Jang succeeded Muzaffar Jang, and came also under the influence of the French. During the tenure of Salábat, the assistance of the French was required against the Maráthás, and the exertions of French troops were rewarded by a grant of the province of Kondavír. After a short time, mainly through the instrumentality of the enterprising Monsieur de Bussi, Monsieur Dupleix administered a territory with six hundred miles of seaboard, and larger than any as yet possessed in India by a European power. Monsieur de Bussi was superseded by the Marquis de Conflans, on the arrival of Count Lally at Pondicherri. Meanwhile the English in Bengal became alarmed at the progress of the French in the Karnátik, and a detachment under Colonel Forde and Captain Yorke was sent to Masulipatam. The place fell before their gallant and almost desperate assault. Salábat Jang, on the defeat of his allies, found himself compelled to sign a treaty with the English by which he resigned the greater portion of Kistna District.

The opening of the British period was disturbed by a prospect of the restoration of French influence; but with the return of Lord Clive to Bengal in 1765, British authority was confirmed, and imperial *sanads* were obtained from the Emperor of Delhi granting to the East India Company the five Northern Circars. The publication of the *sanads* took the Nizám by surprise; and abandoning a war he had on hand with the Maráthás, he turned his forces against the English. The Nizám was joined by Haidar Alí of Mysore, but the hostilities which broke out in 1767 speedily ended with a treaty which left the Company tributary to the Nizám for most of the territory at stake. Guntúr was assigned to Basálat Jang, brother of the Nizám, for life, and became during the next twelve years a focus for French and Haidarábád intrigue against the English. But in 1788, with the rendition to the Company of the Guntúr Circar, Kistna District, excepting the wild country of the Palnád, became an integral part of the East India Company's possessions. The absolute right of sovereignty over the whole District was not obtained until 1823.

Population.—As in other Madras Districts, the population has been roughly counted every five years by the agency of the village

establishments. In 1861, it was estimated at 1,296,652. In 1871, when the first regular Census was taken, the population was returned at 1,452,374. According to the Census taken on the night of February 17, 1881, the population was 1,548,480, showing an increase of 96,106, or 6·6 per cent., in the ten years. The density of population in 1871 was 171 persons to the square mile; in 1881, the density was 183. Kistna ranks fifteenth in respect of density of population among the Districts of the Madras Presidency. Males in 1881 numbered 780,588; females, 767,892. Classified according to age, there were in 1881—under 15 years, males 310,158, and females 300,326; total children, 610,484: 15 years and upwards, males 470,430, and females 467,566; total adults, 937,996. Number of towns, 13; villages, 1810; occupied houses, 268,849; unoccupied, 18,963; towns and villages per square mile, ·215; occupied houses per village, 148·5; persons per occupied house, 5·8. Distributed according to religion, Hindus numbered 1,425,013, or 92 per cent.; Muhammadans, 87,161, or 5·6 per cent.; Christians, 36,194, or 2·3 per cent.; Jains, 8; and 'others' 104.

Taking the Hindu population by caste, there were—Bráhmans (priests), 94,893; Kshattriyas (warrior caste), 11,569; Shettis (traders), 69,854; Vallálars (cultivators), 522,696, or over 36 per cent. of the whole; Idaiyars (shepherds), 101,578; Kammálars (artisans), 34,528; Kannakan (writers), 305; Kaikalars (weavers), 47,199; Vanniyan (labourers), 24,459; Kushávan (potters), 16,363; Sátáni (mixed and depressed castes), 18,606; Shembadavan (fishermen), 5573; Shánán (toddy-drawers), 30,643; Ambattan (barbers), 16,557; Vannán (washermen), 44,276; pariahs and 'others,' 385,914. Divided into their tribes, the Muhammadans were thus returned—Arabs, none; Mughals, 52; Patháns, 88; Sayyids, 204; Shaikhs, 1979; and 'other' Muhammadans, 84,838. The Christian population according to sect consisted of—Protestants, 24,471; Roman Catholics, 9804; and 'others,' 1919. The Christian population included Europeans and Americans, 52; Eurasians, 73; native converts, 15,967; and 'others,' 20,102. About half the population were returned as workers; of the workers, 34 per cent. were women.

The Census of 1881 distributed the males into the following six groups as regards occupation:—(1) Professional class, including State officials of every kind and the learned professions, 21,961; (2) domestic servants, inn and lodging-house keepers, 3986; (3) commercial class, including bankers, merchants, carriers, etc., 19,617; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, including gardeners, 340,224; (5) industrial class, including all manufacturers and artisans, 100,254; (6) indefinite and non-productive class, comprising general labourers, male children, and persons of unspecified occupation, 294,546.

Of the 1823 towns and villages in Kistna District, 289 in 1881 contained less than two hundred inhabitants; 517 from two to five hundred; 495 from five hundred to one thousand; 403 from one to two thousand; 80 from two to three thousand; 28 from three to five thousand; 8 from five to ten thousand; 1 from ten to fifteen thousand; 1 from fifteen to twenty thousand; and 1 from twenty to fifty thousand. The urban population forms 7·9 per cent. of the whole, distributed through the following thirteen principal towns:—Masulipatam (35,056); Guntúr (19,646); Jaggayapet (10,072); Bezwáda (9336); Chirala (9061); Bápatla (6086); Núzvíd (5657); Mangalagíri (5617); Chellapalli (5615); Kondapallí (4289); Nizámpatam (4128); Vallúr (4070); and Mylaveram (3704). Masulipatam and Guntúr are municipalities, with a total income in 1883-84 of £4766, the incidence of taxation being 10¾d. per head of the municipal population. The language spoken in the District is Telugu. The Chentsus and Yerikalas speak dialects of their own. The Yanádis and Banjáras are gipsy tribes. In 1881, the Yerikalas numbered 5914; the Banjáras, 5565; and the Yanádis, 11.

The people of Kistna District are generally poor, but an exception must be made in the case of the *ráyats* of the Delta, who are as a rule very well off. Throughout the Delta, the houses are for the most part built with brick walls, and tiled or terraced roofs; in other parts, they are of mud walls with tiled roofs. Rice is the food of all classes in the Delta, but only well-to-do people use it in the other parts of the District. The total monthly expenditure of a prosperous shopkeeper's family, consisting of five persons, would be about 28s., and that of an ordinary peasant about 16s.

Agriculture.—Of the total area of 4,093,718 acres, 667,696 were in 1882 held as *inám* or rent-free; of the remaining 3,426,022 acres, 1,461,964 acres were under cultivation, of which 12,615 acres were twice cropped; the whole untilled but cultivable area was returned at 964,108 acres, and the uncultivable waste at 879,126 acres. In 1882-83, of the total area (Government and *inám*) of 4,093,718 acres, 1,886,063 acres were under actual cultivation, of which 14,123 acres were twice cropped; cereals occupied 1,264,608 acres; pulses, 111,841; fibres, 202,874; dyes (chiefly indigo), 122,975; oil-seeds, 112,385; sugar (palm or palmyra), 6680; condiments and spices (mostly chillies), 55,105; drugs and narcotics (principally tobacco), 20,170; orchard and garden produce, 3201; and starches (chiefly potato), 357 acres. The staples raised in the District are rice, maize, *rágí*, pulses, hemp, flax, cotton, tobacco, gingelly, oil-seeds, chillies, wheat, garlic, indigo, and various kinds of fruit. There are three classes of crops grown — namely, *punása* (early crop), sown in May or June, and reaped in September; *pedda* (great or middle), sown from July to September, and cut between November and February; and *paira*

(late crop), sown in November and December, and gathered in February and March. Rice of all kinds is sown in *régar* or black soil. The area under rice in 1882–83 was 351,330 acres, or 18 per cent. of the whole cultivated area. The price of the best rice per *maund* (80 lbs.) was, in the same year, 5s. 3d.

The Delta is irrigated by the water of the Kistna river, which has been diverted into channels by the anicut at Bezwára at a cost of £69,741. In 1881, the area irrigated from this source, within Kistna District, was 165,136 acres; in addition, 6019 acres were fertilized by the Godávari channels, and 19,941 acres were irrigated from tanks. The total assessment on the irrigated area was £109,688. During the same year the total area irrigated from the Kistna canals amounted to 287,027 acres, the ultimate area irrigable by the works, when carried to completion, being 475,000 acres. Manure of inferior quality is generally used. The District contains numerous wells.

Of a total area of 8471 square miles, 5112 square miles were assessed in 1881 for revenue, of which 3479 square miles were cultivated, 1238 square miles cultivable but not cultivated, and 395 square miles uncultivable waste. The agricultural population of the District in 1881 numbered 471,318, or 30·4 per cent. of the total population. Total amount of Government assessment, including local rates and cesses on land, £478,951, or an average of 4s. 3d. per cultivated acre. Total amount of rental actually paid by cultivators, including rates and cesses, £635,460, or an average of 5s. 6d. per cultivated acre. According to the returns of 1882–83, the farm stock included 105,159 ploughs, 25,854 carts, 713 boats, 167,094 buffaloes, 358,352 bullocks and cows, 2154 horses and ponies, 304,820 goats and sheep, 33,301 pigs, 8977 donkeys, and 3 camels.

The current prices of the chief articles of food during 1882–83 were, for a rupee—rice, 30 lbs.; *rágí*, 64 lbs.; wheat, 23 lbs.; and gram, 44 lbs. The daily wages of coolies and agricultural day labourers in 1850 were from 1½d. to 3d.; in 1882, from 4½d. to 6d. Skilled labourers in 1882 earned 10½d. a day; while sixteen years ago they earned 3¾d. to 6d.

Natural Calamities.—Famines occurred in 1423, 1474, 1686, and 1793, but of these there is no detailed account extant. The great famine of 1832–34 caused a decrease of 200,000 in the population. It was worst in the Guntúr portion, and was due to the failure of both the monsoons, causing, it is said, a loss of revenue in Guntúr District estimated at £2,270,000. Prices rose enormously. Public works were opened, but the bulk of the people would not avail themselves of them, and wandered away to other Districts. The loss of population was only in part due to deaths. Kistna District was but slightly affected by the great South Indian famine of 1876–78.

Although the cultivated area temporarily fell off by 14·2 per cent., the local scarcity did not reach famine point. Inundations of the sea overwhelmed the town of Masulipatam in the years 1779 and 1864; and in both cases they were due to a storm-wave forced on to the coast by the violence of a cyclone. The reported loss of life on each occasion was between 20,000 and 30,000 persons. In the last cyclone, the salt water penetrated to a distance of 17 miles inland.

Manufactures, etc.—Next to agriculture, the most important industry in the District is weaving. The chintzes and coloured cloths of Masulipatam once enjoyed a wide reputation, and these goods were formerly sent to the Persian Gulf to the value of £50,000; but the annual value of this export has now fallen to £5000. In other parts of the District also the competition of cheap piece-goods from Manchester has almost destroyed the manufacture of the more durable native cloth. At Bezwáda a considerable trade is carried on in dressed hides. In the villages, the chief manufacture is still cotton-weaving, sometimes from native hand-made thread. In some of the villages saltpetre is refined. A little silk is made at Jaggayapet, and in the large towns there is some trade in copper and brass vessels. At Kondavír and Kondapallí certain manufactures are a specialty: at the former, essences and fragrant oils are distilled; at the latter, small figures and toys are cut out of the light wood (Gyrocarpus Jacquini) found on the neighbouring hills.

A curious export of the District is the feathers of the white-breasted king-fisher, which are bought up by the dealer for £1, 12s. per 100. Cotton and indigo are exported in considerable quantities from Cocanáda in Godávari District, a far easier port of shipment than Masulipatam. The only business carried on by European agency is a steam cotton-press at Guntúr. Cotton is brought there to be pressed, and thence sent by road and canal to Cocanáda, where the purchasers from the west reside. In 1874–75, the total sea-borne imports into the District were valued at £190,058, and the exports at £251,206; in 1881–82, the figures were—imports, £114,009; exports, £274,231. The gross duty paid in the former year was £1507; in the latter year, £2713. In March 1882, the customs import duties, with the exception of those on liquors, arms and ammunition, and one or two other articles, were abolished throughout British India. The largest exports are of grains, seeds, and spices. The three seaports are Masulipatam, Nizámpatam, and Ipurpalayam. Lighthouses have been built at Masulipatam and Point Devi. Seventeen thousand tons of salt were made in 1881, manufactured in the 4 factories of the District, situated at Pandraka, Manginapudi, Nizámpatam, and Chinna Ganjám. The value of the inland trade, with the Nizám's territory, in 1881 was £182,127 passing coastwards, and £245,921 passing inland.

The principal roads are — from Masulipatam to Haidarábád (Hyderábád); from the Palnád *viâ* Sattanapalle to Guntúr, and thence to Bezwáda; from Bhadráchalam *viâ* Tirvúr to Bezwáda; and from Nellore District to Pondogala on the Kistna and thence to Haidarábád. Total length of road communication, 537 miles. Length of navigable rivers, 231 miles. There is water communication between Bezwáda and the Godávari Canals. Length of navigable canals, 172 miles. Bezwáda was but a little village when the anicut was made, and the Kistna irrigation system established; it is now a flourishing town, and the busiest place in the District.

Administration.—The total revenue of Kistna District in 1870–71 amounted to £548,469, of which £359,172 was derived from the land. In 1882 it was £440,058, of which £386,996 was derived from the land. It appears that from the earliest times there were public officers in each village, with duties corresponding to those of a *kurnam* and *munsif* at the present day. The Musalmáns first introduced the system of renting out villages to middlemen, or *zamíndárs*, originally mere collectors of revenue, who gradually raised themselves to the position of hereditary landowners, and at last asserted their independence of the sovereign power. When negotiations were going on between the Nizám and English, soon after the capture of Masulipatam by Colonel Forde in 1759, it was urged by the Company that, as the Nizám had not for a considerable period received any money from the Circars, he would lose nothing by surrendering his nominal rights to the English.

When the English undertook the government of that part of the Circars which now comprises the present District of Kistna, the lands were divided into *háveli* and *zamíndárí*. The *háveli* lands were divided into *mútahs*, and were sold; the whole District, including the old *zamíndárís*, and the recently sold *háveli* lands, being brought under the permanent settlement of 1802. In course of time many of the *zamíndárs* fell into arrears, and an inquiry into the causes of this was held by Mr. (now Sir) Walter Elliott, reported on in 1846. In 1846, all the *zamíndárís* in Guntúr District, and some in Masulipatam District, came under the hammer, and were purchased by Government. On the Masulipatam side of the river, the custom was to let the whole village for a fixed sum to the chief inhabitants, or any one who would outbid them, leaving it to the villagers to apportion the revenue and lands among the cultivators. But when Guntúr fell to Government, the strict *rayatwárí* system of dealing with each *rayat* for his land was ordered. The revenue was fixed either by measurement or by the yearly out-turn of crops. In 1859, the new settlement, to ascertain the productive value of the land, was begun, and finished in 1873. The assessment then fixed will hold good for thirty years.

Kistna District contains 13 *táluks*, and several *zamíndári* estates. The District is administered by a Collector and Magistrate, with 4 Assistants and 37 subordinate judicial officers. The police force consists (1882) of 1346 men, controlled by a superintendent and his assistant, who reside at Masulipatam and Guntúr respectively. Cost of police (1882), £17,583. There is a District jail at Guntúr, and 21 subsidiary prisons. The average daily number of prisoners in Guntúr jail in 1882 was 129, maintained at a cost of £8 per prisoner.

The country people, save Bráhmans and Komatís, are generally uneducated; but in the towns, the inhabitants gladly avail themselves of the schools that have been established. The Church Missionary Society has a station at Masulipatam, and the American Lutherans at Guntúr. In 1823, the number of vernacular schools teaching Telugu was 465; Persian, 19; and Sanskrit, 49. In 1882-83, the total number of educational institutions, Government, aided, and unaided (including 3 normal schools and 44 girls' schools), was 1102, with 23,119 pupils. The Census Report of 1881 returns 19,161 boys and 1262 girls as under instruction, besides 58,365 males and 2378 females able to read and write, but not under instruction.

Medical Aspects.—The District surgeon resides at Masulipatam, and there is also a civil surgeon at Guntúr who has charge of the District jail. The cost of the hospitals founded in both these places is defrayed by local funds. Local funds also maintain dispensaries in every *táluk*, there being three in the Palnád, where malaria is prevalent. Advice and medicine are given free. Births per thousand registered in 1882, 29; deaths per thousand registered, 17. Rainfall in 1882, 47·9 inches; average of nineteen years ending 1881, 36·7 inches. [For further information regarding Kistna, see the *Manual of the Kistna District*, compiled for the Government of Madras, by Mr. G. Mackenzie, C.S. (Madras, 1883). Also the *Settlement Report* of the District, by Mr. W. W. Wilson, C.S. (1867); the *Madras Census Report* for 1881; and the several Annual Administration and Departmental Reports for the Presidency from 1880 to 1883.]

Kistna (*Krishtna*, *Krishna*).—River of Southern India, which, like the Godávari and Káveri (Cauvery), flows almost across the peninsula from west to east. In traditional sanctity it is surpassed by both these rivers, and in actual length by the Godávari; but the area of its drainage basin, including its two great tributaries, the Bhíma and Tungabhadra, is the largest of the three. Its total length is about 800 miles, and the total area of its catchment basin about 97,050 square miles.

The source of the Kistna is in 18° 1′ N. lat., and 73° 41′ E. long., near the Bombay sanitarium of Mahábaleshwar, in the Western Gháts, only about 40 miles from the Arabian Sea. Here stands an ancient

temple of Mahádeo, at the foot of a steep hill, at an elevation of about 4500 feet above sea-level. In the interior of the temple is a small tank, into which a stream of pure water ever pours out of a spout fashioned into the image of a cow's mouth. This is the traditional fountain-head of the river, which is likened to the deity in a female form, and is fondly called Krishna Bái. Pilgrims in large numbers crowd to the sacred spot, which is embowered in trees of dark foliage and flowering shrubs. From Mahábaleshwar the Kistna runs southwards in a rapid course, flowing through the British Districts of Satára and Belgáum, the cluster of Native States which form the South Maráthá Agency, and the District of Kaládgi. Here it turns east to pass into the dominions of the Nizám of Haidarábád. In this portion of its course it receives many tributaries, of which the chief are the Yerla, Warna, Idganga, Ghátprabha, and Málprabha. All these, like the main stream, are characteristic rivers of the plateau of the Deccan. They run in deep channels, from which it is almost impossible to lead off channels for irrigation. In the rainy season they swell into brimming torrents, but during the remaining eight months of the year they shrink to mere threads of water, straggling through a sandy waste.

On entering the Nizám's dominions, the Kistna drops from the table-land of the Deccan Proper down to the alluvial Doábs of Shorápur and Ráichur. The fall is as much as 408 feet in about three miles. In time of flood, a mighty volume of water rushes with a great roar over a succession of broken ledges of granite, dashing up a lofty column of spray. The first of the Doabs mentioned above is formed by the confluence of the Bhíma, which brings down the drainage of Ahmadnagar, Poona, and Sholápur; the second by the confluence of the Tungabhadra, which drains the north of Mysore and the 'Ceded Districts' of Bellary and Karnúl (Kurnool). At the point of junction with the Tungabhadra, the Kistna again strikes upon British territory, and, still flowing east, forms for a considerable distance the boundary between the Madras Presidency and the Nizám's dominions. Here it is joined by its last important tributary, the Musi, on whose banks stands the Nizám's capital of Haidarábád. On reaching the frontier chain of the Eastern Gháts, the Kistna turns south to reach the sea.

The delta, for about 100 miles from the mountains to the Bay of Bengal, lies entirely within British territory, and is now known as the District of Kistna. The river ultimately falls into the sea by two principal mouths. Along this part of the coast runs an extensive strip of land, which has been entirely formed by the detritus washed down by the Kistna and the Godávari. As a great part of the course of the Kistna and its tributaries flow through alluvial soil, the flood-water is heavily charged with silt. The rocky bed through which the river flows in Karnúl District, and in the Palnád and Sattanapalli Sub-divisions of Kistna

District, does not favour the deposit of much of this silt. The channel which the river has found among the older rocks must be scoured out in high floods, for the average fall of the river in the 295 miles above Bazwáda is 3·5 feet per mile. When it reaches Bazwáda, it is confined between two gneissic hills, the width of the gorge being about 1300 yards. At this point the velocity of the river in flood is rather more than 6·5 miles an hour, and the maximum flood discharge attains the enormous figure of 761,000 cubic feet per second. The solid matter carried by the flood-water past Bezwáda is $\frac{1}{432}$ of the bulk. It follows that the Kistna in high flood carries past Bezwáda daily enough detritus to form a deposit one foot deep over a surface of five square miles. Below Bezwáda to the sea, the fall of the river is only 0·66 foot per mile, and the bed widens out to three or four miles, so that in the course of ages an extensive deltaic tract has formed between Bezwáda and the coast. This delta slopes away on either side, with a fall of about 18 inches per mile from the elevated river bed; hence all that is not protected by embankments is submerged whenever a high flood occurs, and the deposition of fluviatile alluvium still continues. The Kolár (Koller) Lake, a depression between the deltas of the Godávari and the Kistna rivers, represents the work still to be done by this alluvium in levelling up the land wrested from the sea by the rivers. The actual mouths of the rivers have thrown out low promontories far into the sea.

The Kistna may be said to be almost entirely useless for navigation. From Jaggayapet down to the anicut (about 50 miles), the river is navigable for about six months of the year by sea-going *dhonís*, which are brought up either by the Bandar or the Ellore Canal. The chief port in the delta is Masulipatam, a bare roadstead, liable to be swept by cyclones. The river channel is throughout too rocky and the stream too rapid to allow even of small native craft. The mode of crossing at the ferries is by wide circular baskets, made of hides stretched over a framework of bamboos. Near Ráichur, the main stream is crossed by a magnificent iron girder bridge of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway.

In utility for irrigation the Kistna is also inferior to its two sister streams, the Godávari and the Káveri (Cauvery). Throughout the upper portion of its course it runs in a deep bed, with high banks rising from 30 to 50 feet above its ordinary level. Naturally it drains rather than waters the surrounding country; and but insufficient attempts have yet been made to extend its usefulness by means of artificial channels. Of its tributaries, the head-waters of the Bhíma are dammed up at Kharakwasla to furnish Poona with a water-supply; and the Madras Irrigation Company have expended large sums of money to water the thirsty soil of Karnúl (Kurnool) from the floods of the Tungabhadra. On the main stream, a small work has been constructed high up in Satára

District, called the Kistna Canal. A dam has been thrown across the bed of the river, from which a canal is taken parallel to the left bank, capable of irrigating an area of 1825 acres.

But by far the greatest irrigation work on the Kistna is the Bezwáda anicut, first commenced in 1852, when the similar undertakings on the deltas of the Káveri and Godávari had pointed out the way to success. Bezwáda is a small town at the entrance of the gorge by which the Kistna bursts down through the Eastern Gháts upon the plains. The channel is here 1300 yards wide. During the dry season the depth of water is barely 6 feet, which rises in summer freshes sometimes to as much as 40 feet. The maximum flood discharge is calculated at 761,000 cubic feet of water per second. The object of the engineer has been to regulate this excessive supply, so that it shall no longer run to waste and destruction, but be husbanded for the purposes of agriculture, and to some extent also of navigation. The Bezwáda anicut consists of a mass of loose stone, faced with a front of masonry. Its total length is 1238½ yards, the breadth 263 feet, and the height above the river bed 20 feet. At each end sluices have been provided, in order to scour out channels for the heads of the two main canals. Of these, the one on the left bank breaks into two branches, one running 39 miles to Ellore, the other 49 miles to Masulipatam. The canal on the right bank proceeds nearly parallel to the river, and also sends off two principal branches, to Nizámpatam and Komamur. The total length of the main channels (not including minor distributaries) is 254 miles; the total irrigated area is 226,000 acres, yielding a revenue of £89,000. Schemes are now under consideration for extending the network of canals. The Kistna canal system is connected with that of the Godávari through the town of Ellore.

Kistnapur.—Town in Karúnagapalli District, Travancore State, Madras Presidency. Lat. 9° 9′ N., long. 76° 33′ E. Population (1871) 3731; houses, 895. Not returned in the Census Report of 1881. Seat of a District judge; contains a palace and a large square fort in good repair to the west; a canal leads to Káyenkolam. Its once active seaborne trade has now disappeared.

Kittúr.—Town and fort in the Sámpgáon Sub-division of Belgáum District, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 15° 35′ 30″ N., and long. 74° 50′ E.; 26 miles south-east of Belgáum. Population (1872) 7166; (1881) 6300. The Desáis of Kittúr were descended from two brothers, who came as bankers with the Bijápur army towards the close of the 16th century. By distinguished action in the field, the Desáis obtained a grant of Hubli; and their fifth successor established himself at Kittúr. On the fall of the Peshwá, the town passed into the hands of the British Government. But in 1818, when General Munro was besieging the fort of Belgáum, the Desái of Kittúr gave great assistance, and in

return was allowed to retain possession of his town of Kittúr. The Desái died in 1824, without issue. An attempt was subsequently made to prepare a forged deed of adoption, which led to an outbreak, in which the Political Agent and Collector, Mr. Thackeray, was killed, and his two Assistants imprisoned. The prisoners were afterwards released, but the fort was not surrendered until it had been attacked and breached, with a loss of 3 killed and 25 wounded. Among the killed was Mr. Munro, Sub-Collector of Sholápur, and a nephew of Sir Thomas Munro. Kittúr then finally passed into the hands of the British, although another rising occurred in 1829, which was not suppressed without difficulty. Bi-weekly markets are held in Kittúr town on Mondays and Thursdays, at which cotton, cloth, and grain are sold. Weaving and glass bangle-making are the sole industries. School and post-office.

Koch (also called *Pali* or *Rájbansí*). — These three names are applied to a race of aboriginal descent found in the Districts of North-Eastern Bengal, and in Assam. Nothing is known for certainty as to their origin, but their name and that of the ancient kingdom over which they once ruled is still preserved in the independent State of Kuch (or Koch) Behar. The best authorities regard the Kochs as a branch of the Bodo, Mech, or Cachari stock who had become Hinduized at a very early date, and who dominated the ancient kingdom of Kámrúp in Lower Bengal, stretching eastwards as far as the borders of Bhután. The Kochs, except by their broad faces, flat noses, and projecting cheek-bones, are now hardly to be distinguished from ordinary Hindus. On the conversion of the Kámrúp kings to Hinduism, a divine ancestry was found for the race, and numbers of Kochs now repudiate their race name, and claim that of Rájbansí, literally 'of royal descent.' With the exception of the people known as Páni Koch who inhabit the submontane tract at the foot of the Gáro hills, and who have only partially accepted Hinduism by abstaining from the use of beef as food, the whole of the Koch people have adopted exclusive Hindu caste habits. The total number of Kochs (including Rájbansís) returned in the Census Report of 1881 is 1,985,180, confined wholly to the Districts of North-Eastern Bengal and Assam.

Kochchi Bandar.—Town in Malabár District, Madras Presidency. —*See* COCHIN.

Kod.—Sub-division of Dhárwár District, Bombay Presidency. Area, 400 square miles; number of villages, 177; population (1881) 80,345, namely, 41,397 males and 38,948 females. Hindus numbered 72,759; Muhammadans, 7138; and 'others,' 448. Since 1872, the population has increased by 1246.

Kod, the most southern Sub-division of Dhárwár District, is dotted with small hills and ponds; some of the latter when full are two or

three miles in length. Many of the hillocks are bare, but the range which separates Kod from Mysore is covered with brushwood and low forests. A considerable portion of the Sub-division is well watered, and covered with sugar-cane fields and areca palms. The villages are small, close together, well shaded, and situated in the open plains. The soil is chiefly red; black soil occurring in a few villages in the east. The north and west are studded with small hills and knolls, and the south is also hilly. The Tungabhadra touches a few villages in the south-east corner; the Kumadvati, rising in the Madak lake in Mysore, with a bed 150 feet broad, and between steep banks, flows east across the Sub-division. In the hot season it holds water in pools. Though cool and healthy during the hot months, the climate is very feverish during the cold season. During the ten years ending 1881, the rainfall at Hirekerúr, the head-quarters of the Sub-division, averaged 25·73 inches.

Of the 400 square miles, 389 have been surveyed in detail. Fifteen square miles are occupied by alienated villages. The remainder consists of 191,648 acres of arable land, of which 46,810 acres are alienated lands in Government villages; 2016 acres, unarable land; 3774 acres, grass land; 25,829 acres, forests; and 23,811 acres, village sites, roads, rivers, and streams. In 1881–82, of 123,768 acres, the whole Government area occupied for tillage, 25,859 acres were fallow or under grass. Of the 97,909 acres under tillage, cereals covered 65,539 acres; pulses, 7018 acres; oil-seeds, 3843 acres; fibres, 3370 acres; and miscellaneous crops, 18,139 acres, of which chillies occupied 16,219 acres. In 1882–83, the Sub-division contained 35 boys' and 1 girls' school, 2 criminal courts, and 1 police station (*thána*); regular police, 43 men; village watchmen, 185. Yearly land revenue, £18,663.

Kodachádri.—Mountain of the Western Gháts, boundary between Shimoga District, Mysore State, and Kundalpur *táluk*, South Kánara District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 13° 51′ 40″ N., long. 74° 54′ 40″ E.; 4446 feet above sea-level. A well-known landmark. On the Mysore side it rises 2000 feet from the plateau, and is clothed with magnificent forests. Towards the west it falls precipitously to the plain of Kánara for 4000 feet, and affords a view as far as the sea. Half-way up is a temple to Huli Deva, the tiger-god.

Kodagu.—The ancient name of Coorg, meaning 'Steep Mountains.' —*See* COORG.

Kodaikánal ('*The Forest of Creepers*').—Hamlet of Vilpatti village in Palni *táluk*, on the Palni Hills, Madura District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 10° 13′ 21″ N., and long. 77° 31′ 38″ E. A hill sanitarium, 7209 feet above sea-level. Population of Vilpatti (1871) 757; (1881) 1080, namely, 605 males and 475 females, occupying 219 houses. Hindus numbered 794; Christians, 258; and Muhammadans, 28. Kodaikánal is a summer resort of growing popularity. It contains two churches

and several English houses, and is about 40 miles by road from Ammayanayakanúr station on the Tuticorin branch of the South Indian Railway. The climate is similar to that of Utákamand (Ootacamund), but somewhat milder, with a lighter rainfall, and without its raw and treacherous moisture. But the site of the settlement is ill chosen, and many more suitable spots exist on the Palni range.

Kodáshirí.—Mountain in Cochin State, Madras Presidency. Lat. 10° 21′ to 10° 21′ 45″ N., and long. 76° 23′ 20″ to 76° 28′ E.

Kodinár.—Town in the Amreli Division, Baroda State, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 20° 46′ 30″ N., long. 70° 46′ E. Population (1872) 6524; (1881) 6542, namely, 3291 males and 3251 females. Kodinár is a walled town, situated in the Káthiáwár peninsula on the bank of the Singáwáda river, about three miles from the sea. There is a port exporting grain, cotton, and *ghí*, and importing wheat, *joár*, cloth, spices, and dry goods. Vernacular school, post-office, and dispensary.

Kodlipet.—Town and municipality in the territory of Coorg, in the extreme north of Yelusávirasime *táluk*. Distance from Merkára, 44 miles. Lat. 12° 48′ N., long. 75° 57′ E. Population (1871) 1345; (1881) 856, occupying 175 houses. Weekly market on Sundays; a fine description of cloth is woven. School, with 15 pupils.

Kodumúr.—Town in Pattikonda *táluk*, Karnúl (Kurnool) District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 15° 41′ 30″ N., long. 77° 50′ 15″ E. Population (1871) 6064; (1881) 3736, namely, 1938 males and 1798 females. Number of houses, 980. Hindus numbered 3097, and Muhammadans 639. Noted for its blankets.

Kodungalúr (*Cranganore; Kodungalúr Singulyi*—Yule; *Kzuangaloor*—Tohfat-al-Mahajidin; *Cudnegalur* and *Crangalor*—Bartolomeo).—Town in Cochin State, Madras Presidency. Lat. 10° 13′ 50″ N., long. 76° 14′ 50″ E. Population (1876) 9475; number of houses, 1990. Situated on the so-called island of Chetwái, at one of the three openings of the great Cochin backwater, 18 miles north-north-west from Cochin town. Now a place of little importance, but of great and varied historical interest. Tradition assigns to it the double honour of having been the first field of Saint Thomas' labours (A.D. 52?) in India, and the seat of Cherumán Perumál's government (A.D. 341). The visit of Saint Thomas must be regarded as mythical. But it is certain that the Syrian Church was firmly established here before the 9th century (Burnell), and probably the Jews' settlement was still earlier. The latter, in fact, claim to hold grants dated 378 A.D.

The cruelty of the Portuguese, and their Goa Inquisition, drove most of the Jews to Cochin. Up to 1314, when the Vypín harbour was formed, the only opening in the back-water, and outlet for the Periyár, was at Kodungalúr, which must at that time have been the best harbour on the coast. Dr. Day says: 'The Cranganore

(Kodungalúr) Division has been the scene of most momentous changes in times gone by. Here the Jew and the Christian obtained a footing, and founded towns before the Portuguese landed in India. Here the Perumáls flourished and decayed. On this spot the Portuguese fort was raised in 1523, which they contemplated making the seat of their chief power in Malabár. Here fell the Portuguese before Dutch prowess, whilst Cochin still continued in their possession. Here the Dutch had to sell their fort and territory to a native prince, before the British would fire a shot to hold back the victorious Tipú. Now the fort is a ruin, mouldering in the dust, with but one solitary tower overhanging the broad expanse of the river, which rolls on slowly but deeply beneath. Its old moat is the resort of the crocodile and paddy-bird; and its once well-used streets resound no more to human tread. The solitary stranger, perhaps, disturbs a snake in this path or an owl in the dense overhanging trees, but rarely a mortal will meet his eye. Cranganore fort is utterly and entirely deserted.'

In 1502, the Syrian Christians invoked the protection of the Portuguese. In 1523, the latter built their first fort here; and in 1565 enlarged it. In 1661, the Dutch took the fort, the possession of which for the next forty years was contested between the Dutch, the Zamorin, and the Rájá of Kodungalúr. In 1776, Tipú seized the stronghold. The Dutch recaptured it two years later; and having ceded it to Tipú in 1784, sold it to the Travancore Rájá, and again to Tipú in 1789, who destroyed and left it in the following year.

The present town consists of two villages, Metthala and Lakamaleshwara. In the latter are the ruins of some curious old pagodas. The remains of the ancient watch-tower, and the palace of the titular Rájá of Kodungalúr, are of interest. A few miles inland is Ambalkota, where the Jesuits had one of their earliest seminaries, and published in 1577 the first printed work in Malayálam. The town is considered of great sanctity both by Christians and Hindus.

Koel.—*Tahsíl* in Alígarh District, North-Western Provinces.—*See* KOIL.

Koel, North.—River of Chutiá Nágpur, Bengal; rises in lat. 23° 4′ N., and long. 84° 30′ E., in the Barwá Hills, in the west of Lohárdagá District; and, after passing through the centre of Palámau Sub-division, falls into the Son (Soane) on the northern boundary of the District, in lat. 24° 32′ N., and long. 83° 56′ E., about 20 miles above Dehri. Tributaries—the Amánat and Aurangá on the right, and some insignificant streams on the left bank. The Koel has a rocky bed in its earlier course, which becomes sandy as it nears the Son. Navigation is obstructed by a ridge of gneiss rock crossing the river near Sigsigi; and even if this obstacle could be removed, the sudden freshets which occur during the rains would render navigation extremely dangerous.

Koel, South.—River of Chutiá Nágpur, Bengal; rises in lat. 23° 18′ 30″ N., and long. 85° 6′ 15″ E., in Lohárdagá District, a short distance west of Ránchi town. It flows circuitously southwards, until after a course of 185 miles it is joined by the SANKH river in the Tributary State of Gángpur, whence the united stream becomes the BRAHMANI, and ultimately flows into the Bay of Bengal in the north-west of Cuttack District by the Dhámrá estuary. The principal feeders of the Koel are the NORTH and SOUTH KARO, the DEO, and other minor streams.

Kohát.—A British District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of the Punjab (Panjáb), lying between 32° 47′ and 33° 53′ N. lat., and between 70° 34′ and 72° 17′ E. long. Kohát forms the south-western District of the Pesháwar Division, and is one of the north-western Districts of the Punjab. It is bounded on the north by Pesháwar District and the Afrídi Hills, and on the north-west by the Orakzai country; on the south by Bannu; on the east by the river Indus; and on the west by the Záimukht hills, the river Kuram, and the Wazírí hills. Area, 2838 square miles; population (1881) 181,540 persons. The administrative head-quarters are at the town of KOHAT.

Physical Aspect.—The District of Kohát consists chiefly of a bare and intricate mountain region, deeply scored with river valleys and ravines, but enclosing many rich valleys, and rendered economically valuable by the rich deposits of rock-salt which occur amongst its sterile hills. The eastern or Khatak country, especially, comprises a perfect labyrinth of interlacing mountain ranges, which fall, however, into two principal groups, to the north and south of the Teri Toi river, although the line between them is not clearly marked by the river. The hills in the north of the District are of limestone, and those to the south of sandstone formation. The line of demarcation between the two, however, generally runs a good deal north of the Teri Toi. The lower Miranzai valley, in the extreme west, appears by comparison a rich and fertile tract. In its small but carefully tilled and abundantly irrigated glens, fig, plum, apricot, and many other orchard trees flourish luxuriantly; while a brushwood of wild olive, mimosa, and other thorny bushes, clothes the rugged ravines upon the upper slopes, where, however, there are very few gardens. Occasional grassy glades upon their sides form favourite pasture grounds for the Wazírí tribes.

The Teri Toi river, rising on the eastern limit of Upper Miranzai, and running due eastward to the Indus, which it joins 12 miles north of Makhad, divides the District into two main portions. The drainage from the northern half flows southwards, in a complicated system, into the Teri Toi itself, and northward into the parallel stream of the Kohát Toi. That of the southern tract falls northwards also

into the Teri Toi, and southwards towards the Kuram and the Indus. The frontier mountains, continuations of the Safed Koh system, attain in places a considerable elevation, the two principal peaks, Dupa Sír and Mazeo Garh, just beyond the British frontier, being 8260 and 7940 feet above the sea respectively. The Wazírí hills, on the south, extend like a wedge between the boundaries of Bannu and Kohát, with a general elevation of less than 4000 feet. The salt mines are situated in the low line of hills crossing the valley of the Teri Toi, and extending along both banks of that river. The mineral occurs as a solid rock of bluish-grey colour, exposed at intervals for a distance of 40 miles, so as to be quarried rather than mined. The deposit has a width of a quarter of a mile, with a thickness of 1000 feet; it sometimes forms hills 200 feet in height, almost entirely composed of solid rock-salt, and may probably rank as one of the largest veins of its kind in the world. The most extensive exposure occurs at Bahádur Khel, in the south of the District, on a stream draining into the Kuram river. Petroleum springs exude from a rock at Panoba, 23 miles east of Kohát; and sulphur exists in the northern range, but the supply of both is trifling.

History.—The annals of the District coincide with those of its two principal tribes, the Khatak and Bangash Patháns, who constitute together more than 60 per cent. of the population. The latter occupy the Miranzai valley, with the western portion of Kohát proper; while the Khataks hold the remainder of the eastern territory up to the bank of the Indus. According to tradition, the Bangash Patháns were driven from Gardez in the Ghilzai country by its present possessors, and settled in the Kuram valley about the 14th century A.D. Thence they spread eastward, over the Miranzai and Kohát region, fighting for the ground inch by inch with the Orakzais, whom they cooped up at last in the frontier hills. This migration probably took place before the time of Bábar, as that Emperor in his Memoirs mentions the Bangash tribe among the races inhabiting the fourteen Provinces of Kábul.

Throughout the Mughal period, their allegiance to the imperial court seems to have been little more than nominal; but the Duráni Emperors extended their sway to these remote valleys, and Taimur Sháh collected a regular revenue from the Miranzai glens. Early in the present century, Kohát and Hangu formed a governorship under Sardár Samad Khán, one of the Bárakzai brotherhood, whose leader, Dost Muhammad, usurped the throne of Afghánistán. The sons of Sardár Samad Khán were driven out about 1828 by the Peshá-war Sardárs, the principal of whom was Sardár Sultán Muhammad. Meanwhile, the great Sikh reaction had been spreading on every side from its centre at Amritsar, and began to affect even the distant Pathán

hill country. In 1834, Ranjít Singh occupied Peshávar, and Sultán Muhammad Khán retired to Kábul. But the Sikhs found themselves unable to levy revenue from the hardy mountaineers ; and in the following year Ranjít Singh restored Sultán Muhammad Khán to a position of importance at Peshávar, and made him a grant of Kohát and Hangu. Sardár Sultán Muhammad Khán continued to govern Kohát District through his sons till the breaking out of the second Sikh war. The country, however, was generally in a disturbed state, and the Upper Miranzai villages were practically independent. When the Sikh troops took up arms at Peshávar on the outbreak of the second Sikh war, George Lawrence, the British officer there, took refuge at Kohát, but Sultán Muhammad played false, and delivered him over as a prisoner to the Sikhs.

At the close of the campaign, Sultán Muhammad Khán and his adherents retired to Kábul, and the District with the rest of the Punjab was annexed to the British dominions. The boundaries to the west were, however, left undefined. The people petitioned that they had always belonged to Kohát, and in August 1851, Upper Miranzai was formally annexed by proclamation, and an expedition was immediately despatched up the valley to establish our rule. There was no fighting beyond a little skirmishing with the Wazírís near Biland Khel. The lawless Miranzai tribes, however, had no desire to be under either British or Afghán rule. They were most insubordinate, paid no revenue, and obeyed no orders. Seeing this, the Punjab Government wished to withdraw from Miranzai ; but the supreme authority supervened. The people still refused to pay revenue, and incursions across the frontier continued to disturb the peace of the new District. At last, in 1855, a force of 4000 men marched into the valley, enforced the revenue settlement, and punished a recusant village at the foot of the Záimukht Hills. The Miranzais quickly reconciled themselves to British rule; and during the Mutiny of 1857, no opposition of any sort took place in the valley. In March 1858, it was finally decided that the Kuram river was to form the western boundary of the District, thus excluding Biland Khel on the opposite bank, which, although really a part of Miranzai, was handed over to the Kábul Government.

The Khataks, who occupy the eastern half of the District, are an important tribe, holding the west bank of the Indus for a distance of 120 miles from Hund, north of the Kábul river in Peshávar, to Kálabágh in Bannu. According to tradition, they left their native home in the Suláimán mountains about the 13th century, and settled in Bannu District. Thence they migrated northward two hundred years later, through a quarrel with the ancestors of the Bannuchis, and occupied their present domains. One of their leaders, Málik Akor, agreed with the Emperor Akbar to protect the country south of the Kábul river

from depredations, and received in return a grant of territory with the right of levying tolls at the Akora ferry. He was thus enabled to assume the chieftainship of his tribe, and to hand down his authority to his descendants, among whom was the warrior poet, Khushál Khán.

The Khatak chiefs ruled at Akora; but after the establishment of the power of Ahmad Sháh Duráni, it became the custom for a junior member of the family to rule as sub-chief at Teri. This office gradually became hereditary, and the sub-chiefs ruled the Western Khataks in complete independence of the Akora chiefs. The history of these affairs is very confused. The Akora chiefs were constantly interfering in Teri affairs. There were generally two or more rival claimants; the chiefship was constantly changing hands, and assassination and rebellion were matters of every-day occurrence. On the occupation of Pesháwar by the Sikhs under Ranjít Singh, the rival claimants were Rasúl Khán and Biland Khán. At last, in 1835, Ranjít Singh granted Kohát and Hangu to Sultán Muhammad Khán Bárakzai, to whom Rasúl Khán submitted, and obtained the government in return for a fixed tribute. Rasúl Khán held peaceable possession till his death in 1843; when he was succeeded by his adopted son, Khwája Muhammad Khán. The latter was subsequently expelled for a short time by Muhammad Khán; but on the retirement of the Afgháns from Pesháwar, at the close of the campaign of 1848, he again assumed the government of the Teri country, in which the British authorities confirmed him, after the annexation. Khwája Muhammad has proved himself a loyal subject; and in 1872 he obtained the title of Nawáb, with the Knight Commandership of the Star of India.

Population.—The Census of 1855 returned the number of inhabitants of Kohát District at 101,232. That of 1868 showed an increase of 44,187 persons, or 43·64 per cent. The latter enumeration extended over an area of 2838 square miles, and it disclosed a total population of 145,419 persons, distributed among 343 villages or townships, and inhabiting 28,639 houses. In 1881, over the same area, the Census returned a population of 181,540, showing a further increase of 36,121, or 24·8 per cent., since 1868. Total number of towns and villages in 1881, 367; number of houses, 22,442; families, 32,365. Total population, 181,540, namely, males 101,369, and females 80,171. From these data the following averages may be deduced:—Persons per square mile, 64; villages per square mile, 0·13; houses per square mile, 9; persons per village, 494; persons per house, 8·10; proportion of males, 55·62 per cent. Classified according to age, there were, under 15 years—40,181 boys, and 34,747 girls; total children, 74,928, or 41·3 per cent.; above 15 years of age—males, 61,188; females, 45,424; total adults, 106,612, or 58·7 per cent.

As regards religious distinctions, the District retains the Musal-

mán faith of its early Pathán settlers. The Muhammadans number 169,219 persons, or 93·21 per cent., as against 9828 Hindus, or 5·41 per cent.; 2240 Sikhs, or 1·23 per cent.; Jains, 41; and Christians, 212. The Hindus chiefly belong to the trading castes. They comprise 882 Bráhmans, 1383 Khetris, and 5233 Aroras, with a small sprinkling of Rájputs, Játs, and Ahírs. Among the Muhammadans, 7776 rank as Sayyids; but the Patháns form by far the largest division, numbering 116,431, or over two-thirds of the whole population, consisting mainly of the Khatak and Bangash tribes. The Khatak Patháns are tall and good-looking mountaineers, fairer than their Pesháwar brethren; and though naturally wild and lawless, have settled down under our firm administration into peaceful subjects. The Bangash possess an equally fine physique, but lie under the imputation of cowardice.

The District contains only one town with a population exceeding 5000—viz. KOHAT, the head-quarters station, with a total in 1881 of 18,179 inhabitants, including suburbs and military cantonment; HANGU, the capital of the Upper Bangash, and TERI, head-quarters of the Khatak Nawábs, also possess a certain political importance. Of the 367 villages in the District in 1881, 148 contained less than two hundred inhabitants; 127 from two to five hundred; 53 from five hundred to a thousand; 27 from one thousand to two thousand; 6 from two to three thousand; 5 from three to five thousand; and 1 upwards of five thousand inhabitants.

As regards occupation, the Census of 1881 classified the male adults under the seven following headings:—(1) Professional, 9035; (2) domestic, 1669; (3) commercial, 1700; (4) agricultural and pastoral, 30,681; (5) industrial and manufacturing, 9246; (6) indefinite and non-productive, 4701; (7) unspecified, 4156.

Agriculture.—Kohát District, though limited in its capabilities by its generally hilly surface, has made rapid progress in cultivation since the introduction of British rule. At the date of annexation, only 64,772 acres were under cultivation, out of a total area of 1,816,600 acres; but the figures rose steadily, being returned at 76,792 acres in 1860–61; 160,900 acres in 1868–69; 163,015 acres in 1873–74; and 201,947 acres in 1876–77, when measurements were first taken by the Settlement Department. These figures, however, are approximate only, and probably considerably in excess of the truth, as in 1881–82, when a circuit of the District was made by the *patwárís* or village accountants, the cultivated area was ascertained to be only 145,845 acres. In the period of anarchy under the Bárakzai Sardárs, tillage had almost disappeared; the cattle had been carried off, and the *zamíndárs* had fled to the hills. But since annexation, the area under the plough has increased by 125 per cent.

The agricultural staples include wheat and barley for the spring harvest, with rice, millet, Indian corn, and pulses for the autumn crops. Tobacco, mustard, and oil-seeds also cover small areas, and cotton of inferior quality is grown in favourable years. The area under each crop in 1881-82 was returned as follows:—Wheat, 48,950 acres; barley, 18,765 acres; Indian corn, 18,991 acres; rice, 4201 acres; *bájra*, 35,581 acres; *joár*, 287 acres; *kangni*, 1883 acres; gram, 5860 acres; *moth*, 2715 acres; *múg* and *mash*, 5006 acres; cotton, 2822 acres; etc. Cultivation has now nearly reached its utmost limit in the glens and hollows of these barren hills. Irrigation from the hill streams supplied water to 40,607 acres in 1882-83. Manure is abundantly used in lands near the villages, and more sparingly elsewhere. Rotation of crops exist only in its simplest form.

Prices ruled as follows on the 1st of January 1873:—Wheat, 18 *sers* per rupee, or 6s. 3d. per cwt.; barley, 34 *sers* per rupee, or 3s. 4d. per cwt.; Indian corn, 25 *sers* per rupee, or 4s. 6d. per cwt.; *bájra*, 26 *sers* per rupee, or 4s. 4d. per cwt. During the recent Afghán campaigns, the prices of all descriptions of food-grains of all sorts rose extremely high. Prices have since fallen, but up to the end of 1882 had not sunk to their normal rates before the war. On the 1st January 1882, wheat was 14 *sers* per rupee, or 8s. per cwt.; barley, 29⅓ *sers* per rupee, or 3s. 9½d. per cwt.; Indian corn, 21½ *sers* per rupee, or 5s. 2½d. per cwt.; and *bájra*, 19 *sers* per rupee, or 5s. 11d. per cwt. In October 1882, rates were—for wheat, 18½ *sers* per rupee, or 6s. 1d. per cwt.; barley, 30½ *sers* per rupee, or 3s. 8d. per cwt.; Indian corn, 24 *sers* per rupee, or 4s. 8d. per cwt.; and *bájra*, 25½ *sers* per rupee, 4s. 5d. per cwt.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—The principal industry of the District is that of its salt mines, situated in the range of hills along the Teri Toi. Five mines are now open—MALGIN and JATTA on the northern bank, and NARRI, BAHADUR KHEL, and KHARRAK on the opposite side of the river (each of which see separately). Traders resort to the mines from Afghánistán and the Punjab towns. The Preventive Establishment, maintained by Government for the protection of the salt revenue, comprised in 1881 a body of 208 officers and men. The total quantity of salt quarried at all five mines during the year 1870-71, amounted to 407,098 *maunds*, or 294,680 cwt., yielding a duty of £8556. In 1881, the total quantity of salt quarried was 525,494 standard *maunds*, or 375,352 cwt., yielding a duty of £9073. The average duty realized during the nine years ending 1881-82 was £9093 a year. The trade flourishes chiefly during the winter months, as the camels cannot work in the hottest part of the summer. The head-quarters of the salt establishment are at Jattá. Gun and rifle barrels manufactured near

Kohát town have a considerable reputation along the north-western frontier. Coloured scarves, woollen carpets, country cloth, and pottery are also made at Kohát, Hangu, and Teri.

The frontier military road forms the chief channel of communication for wheeled conveyances and artillery. There is a good metalled road to Kushalgarh (29 miles), a point on the Indus on the road to Ráwal Pindi, where there is a good boat bridge, and the terminus of a branch of the Punjab Northern State Railway. The road to Bannu is metalled in patches, but is barely practicable for wheeled traffic. A road *viâ* Hangu to Thal was commenced during the Afghán war, and although much money was spent, it was abandoned while still unfinished. One or two roads led into Pesháwar District *viâ* Mir Kalan and Khairábád, but they are not practicable for wheeled traffic. The road to Pesháwar leads for 12 miles through Afrídi territory, through a defile known as the Kohát Pass, a rough tract frequently covered with large boulders. The above are the only roads in the District; the cross tracks between the different villages are often difficult even for horsemen. They cross rough rocky hills and precipitous ravines, and in the cultivated tracts are much broken up by irrigation cuts. The Frontier Telegraph Line from Pesháwar crosses the District, with a station at Kohát town.

Administration.—The total imperial revenue raised in the District during the year 1851–52 amounted to £9824. By 1882–83, the revenue had increased to £14,477, of which £8909 were derived from the land. The other principal items of revenue are salt and stamps. A small Provincial and local revenue is also raised for home expenditure. The administrative staff consists of a Deputy Commissioner, with one or more Assistant and extra-Assistant Commissioners. Nawáb Khwája Muhammad Khán, K.C.S.I., of Teri, exercises the powers of an honorary magistrate within the Teri Sub-division. In 1882, the District contained 10 civil and revenue judges, and as many magistrates.

The imperial police force in 1882 numbered 439 officers and men, besides a municipal constabulary of 54 men at Kohát; the rural watchmen (*chaukídárs*) numbered 115 men; making a total force of 608, or one to every 4·66 square miles of area and every 299 of the population.

The District jail at Kohát had a daily average of 164 prisoners in 1882. The troops quartered in the District usually comprise 1 mountain battery and 1 garrison battery of artillery, 1 regiment of cavalry, and 3 regiments of infantry, making a total of about 3000 men of all arms. The head-quarters are at Kohát town, but numerous outposts are maintained along the frontier line. Education remains in a very backward stage. Four Government or aided schools, and 43 indigenous schools, had a total roll of only 745 pupils in 1872–73. In 1882, the Government-inspected schools numbered only 6, with 632

pupils, while the indigenous village schools were returned at 251, with 2447 pupils. The only municipality in the District is that of Kohát town (*q.v.*).

Medical Aspects. — The proximity of the hills renders Kohát comparatively cool, except during the summer months; but no record of temperature is available. The rainfall for the sixteen years ending 1881-82 is returned as follows:—1866-67, 15·1 inches; 1867-68, 14·1 inches; 1868-69, 13·4 inches; 1869-70, 19·1 inches; 1870-71, 18·7 inches; 1871-72, 18·4 inches; 1872-73, 24 inches; 1873-74, 18 inches; 1874-75, 24·4 inches; 1875-76, 30·6 inches; 1876-77, 24·5 inches; 1877-78, 34·9 inches; 1878-79, 25·3 inches; 1879-80, 8·6 inches; 1880-81, 15·3 inches; 1881-82, 13·9 inches: annual average, 19·64 inches.

The health of the cantonment and civil station, which formerly bore a bad reputation, has materially improved of late years, owing to the introduction of a better water-supply. In the District, small-pox, fevers, and bowel complaints form the principal endemic diseases. The number of recorded deaths from all causes reported in 1882 amounted to 3178, or 17 per thousand; but these figures cannot be regarded as trustworthy. Of the total, 2262 were assigned to fever, and 316 to small-pox. The 3 Government charitable dispensaries at Kohát, Hangu, and Teri afforded relief in 1882 to 30,052 persons, of whom 821 were in-patients. [For further information regarding Kohát, see the forthcoming *Gazetteer of Kohát District*, to be published by the authority of the Punjab Government in the course of the present year (1885). Also the *Punjab Census Report* for 1881; and the several Annual Provincial Administration and Departmental Reports from 1880 to 1884.]

Kohát.—North-eastern *tahsíl* of Kohát District, Punjab, consisting of a rugged hilly tract stretching below the Orakzai mountains. Area, 803 square miles. Population (1881) 65,245, namely, males 37,249, and females 27,996; average density, 81 persons per square mile. Classified according to religion—Muhammadans numbered 59,711; Hindus, 3901; Sikhs, 1566; and 'others,' 67. Revenue of the *tahsíl*, £5171. The administrative staff, including head-quarters offices, comprises a Deputy Commissioner, with 4 Assistant or extra-Assistant Commissioners, 1 *tahsíldár*, 1 *munsif*, and 4 honorary magistrates. These officers preside over 9 civil and 10 criminal courts; number of police circles (*thánás*), 5; strength of regular police, 148 men; village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 79.

Kohát.—Town, municipality, military cantonment, and administrative head-quarters of Kohát District, Punjab. Situated in lat. 33° 35′ 35″ N., and long. 71° 28′ 43″ E., near the north bank of the Kohát Toi river, 2 miles from the southern base of the Afrídi Hills. Distant from Peshávar 37 miles south, from Bannu 84 miles north-east, from Ráwal Pindi

105 miles west. Elevation above sea-level, 1767 feet. Population (1868), including cantonments, 11,274. Population (1881)—town and suburbs, 13,490; cantonments, 4689; total, 18,179; namely, Muhammadans, 13,752; Hindus, 2798; Sikhs, 1562; and 'others,' 67. Number of houses, 2061. The present town lies in an amphitheatre of hills, at some distance from the old site. Built on undulating ground, with excellent natural drainage. One good main street; the remainder are tortuous alleys, often ending in *culs-de-sac*. Surrounded by a slight wall, 12 feet in height. Government schoolhouse; jail. Small trade, but of relative importance as the chief mart for the hill tribes, who bring down grass and firewood. Manufacture of gun and rifle barrels, at a village near the site of the old town.

The cantonment and civil station lie to the east and north-east of the native town, occupying an elevated site. There is accommodation for about 3000 troops, including a battery of artillery, 1 regiment of cavalry, and 3 regiments of infantry, together with a garrison company of artillery, stationed in the fort. Climate pleasant; but the water-supply is polluted, and the general unhealthiness of the station has been attributed to this cause. The fort, erected by the British Government after the annexation, stands north of the cantonment and town.

Municipal revenue in 1875–76, £757; the highest amount of municipal income ever realized was £3477 in 1880–81, but this was solely due to the large trade of the town during the Afghán war. In 1882–83, the municipal revenue was £1527, or an average of 2s. 3d. per head of population (13,490) within municipal limits.

Kohát Toi.—River in Kohát District, Punjab; rises beyond the British frontier, in the valley which separates the two parallel ranges of the Orakzai Hills. Issues upon British territory, in lat. 33° 36′ N., and long. 71° 9′ E., a little north-east of Hangu. Receives a considerable tributary, which drains the Lower Miranzai valley, and opposite Kohát town sweeps southward, diverted by the curve of the Adam Khel Afrídi Hills; fifteen miles lower down, turns eastward, and, after a further course of 17 miles, falls into the Indus, in lat. 33° 24′ N., and long. 71° 51′ E., 36 miles south-east of Kohát in a straight line.

Kohistán.—*Táluk* or Sub-division of Karáchí (Kurrachee) District, Sind, Bombay Presidency. Area, 2652 square miles. Population (1872) 5681; (1881) 11,957. Bounded on the north by the Sehwán Sub-division; on the east by the Jherak (Jerruck) Sub-division; on the south by the Kadeji Hills and Karáchí *táluk*; and on the west by the Hab river and the Kithar range. Consists of a barren and hilly tract of country, composed of outlying spurs from the Kirthar range. The southern portion merges into several extensive plains, separated by low lines of hills, which afford abundance of forage for herds of cattle from the neighbourhood of the Indus after falls of rain. The valley

of the Mohul, 20 miles long by 10 broad, is enclosed by hills of 1000 feet altitude. The chief streams are the Hab, Báran, and Malir. No canals exist; agriculture is all but unknown; and the Balúchí tribes live almost entirely by pasturing goats and sheep.

The population is nomadic and fluctuating, the whole *táluk* containing only 6 permanent villages. The Balúchís inhabit chiefly the northern portion; the Númrias and Jokias, who are Sindi tribes, range over the central hills and the southern plains. As a rule, none of the people erect any buildings more substantial than a mat hut, which can be put up in a couple of hours. The Númrias or 'nine men,' who are descended from a family of Rájput freebooters and exiles, are especially averse to dealings with Government, and all the tribes are great adepts at cattle-lifting.

The treasury derives no revenue from this extensive *táluk*, as the land-tax has been remitted for twenty years, the cost of its collection proving to be greater than the amount realized. The Government establishment consists only of a *kotwál*, with the powers of a subordinate magistrate. The police force comprises 77 men, under a chief constable. The principal village is Búla Khán's Tháno, which communicates by road with Kotri (32 miles east) and Karáchí (67 miles south-west).

The ancient system of blood-feud still prevails amongst the Balúchí tribes of Kohistán, inducing much bloodshed and internal confusion. A feud may arise from the most trivial causes, such as a wrestle, in which a man of one tribe knocks off the turban of a man belonging to another clan. The insult thus offered is supposed to extend to all the relations and tribesmen on either side, and can only be wiped out in the blood of the offender himself or his family. When the insulted tribe has thus taken vengeance for the affront, the other tribe proceeds to avenge in turn the murder of their clansman, and in this manner the quarrel may continue for many years. To check this state of things, it becomes necessary to imprison the chief of the tribe, though sometimes the injured party, whose turn it is to take revenge, so as to prevail upon him to accept a compensation in the shape of money, camels, or cattle; after which the feud dies a natural death.

A former Collector relates a case in which one Núr Muhammad, an influential member of the Baréjo tribe, seduced a Loharání woman, and slew her husband. He attempted to purchase peace, but the Loharánís refused. He was tried for murder, but escaped through the inapplicability of English procedure to such wild and barbarous tribes. In a little time some Loharánís were found with arms in their hands, going to murder their enemy, and were bound over to keep the peace. Shortly afterwards, however, in 1871, his foemen met

him in a pass near Taung, and cut him to pieces with swords, together with his stepson. When the case came on for trial, the Baréjos tried to implicate a third man, a Gabol, as they had a feud with that branch of the tribe also. This example will illustrate the continuance of the vendetta amongst the rude Balúchí clansmen, even after twenty-five years of British rule.

Koil.—Central northern *tahsíl* of Alígarh District, North-Western Provinces; comprising the *parganás* of Koil, Morthal, and Barauli, and consisting for the most part of a level and well-tilled plain, watered by the Ganges Canal, and traversed by the East Indian and Oudh and Rohilkhand Railways. The *tahsíl* is divided into unequal parts by the Grand Trunk Road, and into two still more unequal portions by the Ganges Canal. Total area, according to the Settlement Records of 1874, 356 square miles, or 227,897 acres, of which 5575 acres were held revenue free, and 53,088 acres were barren. The assessable area was 169,234 acres, of which 151,856 acres were under cultivation, and 17,378 acres cultivable. Population (1872) 230,894; (1881) 227,654, namely, males 123,029 and females, 104,625, showing a decrease of 3240 in the nine years since 1872. Classified according to religion, there were, in 1881—Hindus, 188,443; Muhammadans, 38,128; Jains, 786; and 'others,' 297. Number of villages, 348, of which 247 contained less than five hundred inhabitants. Land revenue (Settlement Report, 1874), £36,057; total Government revenue, £39,662; rental paid by cultivators, £57,671. In 1883, the *tahsíl* contained, including the general head-quarters courts for the District, 4 civil and 10 criminal courts; number of police circles (*thánás*), 3; strength of regular police, 275 men; village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 359.

Koil.—Town and municipality in Alígarh District, North-Western Provinces.—*See* ALIGARH TOWN.

Koil Kuntla.—*Táluk* or Sub-division of Karnúl (Kurnool) District, Madras Presidency. Area, about 530 square miles. Population (1881) 76,296, namely, 38,196 males and 38,100 females. Hindus numbered 68,699; Muhammadans, 6420; and Christians, 1177. Villages, 86; houses, 17,747. In 1883 there were 2 criminal courts; regular police, 63 men; police stations, 9. Land revenue, £23,245.

Koilpatti.—Revenue-free village in Satúr *táluk*, Tinnevelli District, Madras Presidency. Population (1881) 1213; houses, 262. Hindus numbered 1139; Muhammadans, 18; and Christians, 56. Station on the South Indian Railway, Madras to Tuticorin; market on Monday; police station.

A *zamíndárí* estate, consisting of 11 villages; area, 12,836 acres, paying a *peshkash* or permanent assessment of £323; annual revenue derived by the *zamíndár*, £1058.

Kokúr.—Celebrated spring in Kashmír State, Northern India;

situated at the northern base of the Pír Panjal Mountain. Lat. 33° 30′ N., long. 75° 19′ E. Issues by six mouths from the bottom of a limestone cliff. The stream thus formed flows into the Bareng river. Thornton mentions that the Afghán court, when established in Kashmír, drank no other water except that of the Kokúr spring.

Kol.—The name of a collection of aboriginal tribes, mainly occupying the mountainous districts and plateaux of the Chutiá Nágpur Division of Bengal, and found to a smaller extent in the Tributary States of Orissa, and in some Districts of the Central Provinces. Kol is a generic word for the whole group of tribes included linguistically within the term Kolarian; but it is generally applied in a more restricted sense, embracing the three principal tribes, the Munda Kols, whose home is in Lohárdagá District; the Larka Kols or Hos of Singbhúm District; and the Bhúmij Kols of Mánbhúm. Of this latter tribe, those who live on the borders of Chutiá Nágpur proper recognise no distinction between themselves and the Mundas. They intermarry, and associate and coalesce in all matters indicating identity of race. The Bhúmij farther to the east have become too Hinduized to acknowledge the relationship; and those of Dhálbhúm on the borders of Midnapur consider themselves autochthones, and will not admit that they are in any way connected with the Mundas or Hos.

Origin.—Behar, the ancient Magadha, has numerous antiquities attributed to the Cherus and Kols; and from traditions handed down, it appears that the sovereigns of the country were at one time Cherus, the people being for the most part Kols. Dr. Buchanan-Hamilton points to Kábar, the most important of the ruins in Behar attributed to the Cherus or Kols, as evidently the work of a powerful ruler, and probably the stronghold of the princes of the race. Numerous antiquities, forts, and ruins are universally ascribed by the present inhabitants of Behar to that ancient dynasty and primitive race. According to legends and texts in the Rig-veda and the Bhágavata Purána, Cherus and Kols occupied the Magadha country at the time of the birth of Gautama Buddha; and it has been noticed that the sculptures at Buddh-Gaya portray not Aryan, but Turanian or Kol features. Dr. Buchanan-Hamilton states that the dominant race, the Cherus, probably accepted the doctrines of Buddha and became Aryanized, while the Kols rejected them, and adhered to the life of freedom in which they are still found. The Kols appear as the earliest historical settlers in the Gangetic valley; and they had been long established there, and had attained some advance in civilisation, when they were dislodged and driven back by the Savars, a Dravidian people, about 500 A.D.

The following description of the Kols of the present day is quoted in a condensed form from Colonel Dalton's description in his *Ethnology of Bengal* (Calcutta, 1872), to which admirable work the reader is

referred for a full account of these and the other Kolarian tribes (pp. 150 to 235).

'Of the great Kol empire there are now no remnants in Behar. The Cheru chiefs, on being expelled from it, fell back into what is now the Palamau Sub-division of Lohárdagá; whilst the chief seat of the Munda race is now the plateau of Chutiá Nágpur proper. The central table-land, on which the tribes rallied, is admirably adapted for defence. The approaches to it from the north, north-west, east, and south, are exceedingly precipitous, the paths winding up defiles which a handful of resolute men could hold against hosts of invaders. The highlands in the western and south-western direction stretch into Sargújá and Jashpur, uniting with the Vindhyan mountains in a western direction and the Sátpura range to the south-west. They divide the waters of the Narbadá and Mahánadi, forming a covered way by which fresh accessions of cognates strengthened the growing colonies of Kols on the Jhárkhand or forest tract; and thus were founded the "strongholds of the ten chiefs," referred to in the Puránas, and in Colonel Wilford's essays, as the Dasarana, or ten forest forts east of the Son. These Jhárkhand or Chutiá Nágpur chiefs appear to have maintained their isolated and elevated defensive positions throughout the long series of Hindu dynasties, and to have come with an indifferent reputation under the Muhammadan Government.

'Little is found in Munda or Bhúmij folk-lore that throws light on the early history of the race. The families that rank highest among them have lost such traditions in the hazy fables which Hindus have invented for them. The lower classes, as a rule, declare themselves to be autochthones; and even the chiefs found their claims to be of noble birth on miracles that took place in the country which they call their fatherland. But in a manuscript account of the family of the Rájás of Chutiá Nágpur, it is stated that the Mundárís came to Jhárkhand, afterwards called Chutiá Nágpur, from Pipra and Pálígarh, names that occur in the Santál traditions.

'*Village Organization.*—The Mundas say they had no Rájá when they first occupied Chutiá Nágpur. They formed a congeries of small confederate states. Each village had its chief, also called a *múnda*, literally "a head" in Sanskrit; and as a village often consisted of one family, the inhabitants were all of Munda dignity, and hence it became a name for the whole tribe. What the original name for the tribe in their own language may have been, I do not know; but as the Mundárís on the plateau call themselves Konk Pát Munda, Konk or Konkpát may have been a national denomination. They appear to have only one word for ruler, the term *gúmki*, and they apply it to every one in authority. In Mánbhúm District, the word *múnda* becomes *mura*, which is also Sanskrit, and has the same meaning. As

these Kols have taken up the word *múnda*, the Santáls have appropriated the term *mánjhi*, and the Bhúmij *sirdár*. The Munda villages had each its own staff of officers; and from the customs that still prevail in most old villages, the organization that descended from primitive times appears to have been very complete. The system of government that obtained among the Mundas and Uráons of Chutiá Nágpur, before their polity was disturbed by the conversion of their chief, may still be discerned in the existing organization. The country was divided into groups of twelve or more villages, called *parhás*, each under a headman, who was generally called the *múnda*. Although not recognised by the authorities in the administrative divisions of the present time, the people still acknowledge the *parhá* jurisdiction; and questions affecting their social relations are still adjusted in *parhá* conclave. Each village had, besides, its establishment of hereditary public servants, who still exist. The principal of these are the representatives of the most influential of the patriarchs. They originally formed the colony, and each is literally a pillar of the little state called *khúnt*. The head of one of these *khúnts* or families is the chief or *múnda*, of another the *páhn*, or priest, and there is sometimes a third called *máhato*, the *múnda's* deputy. The headmen had no superior rights in the lands cultivated by other villagers. They were not landlords but chiefs, and they and the people acknowledging them held the soil they cultivated in virtue of being the heirs of those who first utilized it; and when it became necessary to distinguish such men from cultivators of inferior title, the former were called *bhuinhárs*, breakers of the soil. When the Mundas and Uráons submitted to a Rájá, and all were required to contribute to his maintenance, the people in each village were divided into two classes. The more privileged, who retained the designation of *bhuinhár*, had to give honorary attendance, and constituted the militia of the state. The remainder supplied food and raiment; but these obligations were eventually commuted for money payment or rent, and the lands cultivated by this class were called *rájhas*, or rent-paying, in contradistinction to the *bhuinhári*, which were, no doubt, originally rent-free. At a late period, the Rájá was allowed to hold in each village a proportion of land called *mánjihas*, which was cultivated for his sole benefit; and the persons who cultivated this land for him or his assigns had lands allotted to them, subject to no other service and no rent, called *beth khetá*. Besides the above, there were lands set apart for the expenses periodically incurred in the propitiation of the national and local deities, by which means the Kols provided against the dangers that threatened their gods from impending changes of belief. The produce of the lands has never, so far as known, been appropriated to the service of the Hindu divinities, though the people contribute something yearly

towards the public worship of Kálí, inaugurated by the *zamíndárs;* if, however, the villagers were all to adopt a new religion, they would doubtless assert their right to devote the assets of what may be called their church lands to the service of the newly-adopted faith.

'*The Religion* of the Mundas possesses a Shamanistic rather than a Fetish character. They make no images of their gods, nor do they worship symbols; but they believe that, though invisible to mortal eyes, the gods may, when propitiated by sacrifice, take up for a time their abode in places especially dedicated to them. Thus they have their "high places" and their "groves,"—the former, some mighty mass of rock to which man has added nothing, and from which he takes nothing; the latter, a fragment of the original forest, the trees in which have been for ages carefully protected, left when the clearance was first made, lest the sylvan gods of places, disquieted at the wholesale felling of the trees that sheltered them, should abandon the locality. Even now, if a tree is destroyed in the sacred grove (the *jáhirá* or *sarna*), the gods evince their displeasure by withholding seasonable rain. Sing Bonga, the creator and preserver, is adored as the sun. Prayer and sacrifice are made to him as to a beneficent deity, who has no pleasure in the destruction of any of his creatures, though, as a father, he chastises his erring children; and to him our gratitude is due for all the benefits we enjoy. He is said to have married Chandra Omol, or the moon, but she deceived him on one occasion and he cut her into two; but repenting of his anger, he allows her at times to shine forth in full beauty. The stars are her daughters. The worship of the sun as the supreme deity is the foundation of the religion of the Kols in Chutiá Nágpur, and also of the Uráons, who address him as Dharmí, the Holy One. He is not regarded as the author of sickness or calamity, but he may be invoked to avert it; and this appeal is often made, when the sacrifices to the minor deities have been unproductive. The other deities are all considered subordinate to Sing Bonga, and though they possess supernatural powers, there are cases beyond their authority; but when they are invoked in such cases, it is their duty to intercede with Sing Bonga, and so obtain for their votaries the solicited relief. This notion of the intercessional power of the minor spirits is remarkable. Chanala Desum Bonga and his wife Pángora have been included among the minor deities of the Hos, but these are the styles under which Sing Bonga and his wife Chandra Omol desire to be worshipped by female votaries. Chanala is to women what Sing Bonga is to men.

'The next in order among the gods after Sing Bonga is Marang-Búrú or Búrá Bonga, the mountain god. The highest or most remarkable hill or rock in the neighbourhood is the shrine of this deity or spirit. The Kols evidently recognise the importance of wooded hills

in securing the needful supply of rain; and trusting entirely to rain for irrigation, and regarding Búrú Bonga as the head of the heavenly water department, they naturally pay him special attention. Every third year, in most places, buffaloes are sacrificed in his honour, and fowls and goats every year. He is also invoked in sickness. In Chutiá Nágpur a remarkable bluff, near the village of Lodhma, is the Marang-Búrú or Mahá-Búrú for a wide expanse of country. Here people of all castes assemble and sacrifice—Hindus, and even Muhammadans, as well as Kols. There is no visible object of worship; the sacrifices are offered on the top of the hill, a bare semi-globular mass of rock. If animals are killed, the heads are left there, and afterwards appropriated by the *páhn*, or village priest. Hindus say that the Marang-Búrú, as a deity, is the same as Mahádeo. They aver, however, that they cannot exist in Chutiá Nágpur without propitiating the local deities. Every village has in its vicinity a grove reputed to be a remnant of the primeval forest, left intact for the local gods when the clearing was originally made. Here Desauli, the tutelary deity of the village, and his wife, Jhár-Era or Mabúrú, are supposed to sojourn when attending to the wants of their votaries. There is a Desauli for every village, whose authority does not extend beyond the boundary of the village to which his grove belongs; if a man cultivates land in another village than the one in which his home is, he must pay his devotions to the Desauli of both. The grove deities are held responsible for the crops, and are especially honoured at all the great agricultural festivals. They are also appealed to in sickness. The next in order are Nága-Era or Naiads, who preside over tanks, wells, and any bodies of stagnant water (called Ekhir-Bonga by the Mundas); and Garhá-Era, the river goddess. They, too, are frequently, and no doubt very truly, denounced as the cause of sickness, and propitiated by sacrifices to spare the sufferers. The remaining spirits are the ancestral shades, who are supposed to hover about, doing good or evil to their descendants. They are often denounced as the cause of calamitous visitations, and propitiatory offerings are made to them; but besides, a small portion of the food prepared in every house is daily set apart for them. The ancestors are the Penates, and are called Ham-ho. The ancestors of the wife have also to be considered; they are called Horatan-ho, because sacrifices to them are always offered on the path *hora*, by which the old woman came as a bride to the house.

'*The Munda Marriages*, as solemnized in most parts of Chutiá Nágpur, have many ceremonies, some of which appear to have been taken from the Hindus; at all events the ceremonies I allude to are common to Hindus and aborigines, but it is not always easy to decide by whom they were originated. We may, however, safely assert that practices common to both, which are not in accordance with the ritual

prescribed in the Vedas, are derived from the aborigines. Among Mundas having any pretensions to respectability, the young people are not allowed to arrange these affairs for themselves. Their parents settle it all for them. The *pan*, or purchase money paid for the bride, varies from Rs. 4 to Rs. 20 (8s. to £2); but the marriage feast is very liberally provided, and as it takes place at the bride's house, the expense chiefly falls on her father.

'*Iron-Smelting.*—The Kols generally understand the smelting of iron. Their country is rich in that mineral; but it is the wilder clans, the mountain Kharriás, the Bírhors, and in Lohárdagá, the Asúrs and Agariás, that chiefly utilize it. Those who devote themselves to it regularly pay no attention to the cultivation of the soil. The Mundas have also acquired the art of washing for gold in the streams and rivers that drain the plateau of Chutiá Nágpur, or rise in the bordering hills, which are all auriferous; but the average quantity obtained is not more than suffices to give a bare subsistence to the persons employed, including men, women, and children. The richest field, Sonápet, is the valley of the Sonai river below the plateau opening on Kharsáwán. The population are all Mundas, enjoying a rich soil, a most romantic and sequestered situation, and low fixed rents. This last advantage was secured to them after the insurrection of 1831, in which they heartily joined.

'*Food.*—The Hinduized Munda abstains from most meats which Hindus consider impure, but it is not safe to place a fat capon in his way. Other Mundas, and all the Hos, eat beef, mutton, goats' flesh, fowls, fish, hares, and deer. Pigs are not much relished except by the poorer classes; and the flesh of bears, monkeys, snakes, field mice, and other small game that the Uráons and Santáls affect, the Mundas and Hos do not approve of. They will take from our hands cakes, bread and the like, but not cooked rice. In regard to cooked rice, these tribes are exceedingly particular. They will leave off eating if a man's shadow passes across their food.

'Very few of this people have been known to take to trade as a pursuit, but the Kols of one small section of Chutiá Nágpur, Tamárh, known as Tamáriás, form an exception. They are employed chiefly as brokers for the purchase of the produce of the wilder parts of the Kolhán; but owing to extension of the market system, and a growing predilection on the part of the Kols for more direct dealings with the traders, the Tamáriás' occupation as brokers is on the wane.

'*Property.*—An equal division of property amongst the sons is the prevailing custom of inheritance; but they live together as an undivided family until the youngest boy attains his majority, when the division is made. The sisters are regarded as live stock, and allotted to the brothers just as are the cattle. Thus, if a man dies, leaving three sons

and three daughters and thirty head of cattle, on a division each son would get ten head of cattle and one sister; but should there be only one sister, they wait till she marries, and divide the *pan*. The *pan* is the price of a wife, paid by her husband to her father's family, and usually consists of about six head of cattle. In Singbhúm the *pan* is higher than in Chutiá Nágpur, and the question of its amount is there found to affect seriously the number of marriages.

'*Character, etc.*—The Mundas are not so truthful and open as the Hos of Singbhúm, nor so manly and honest; but the Mundas have lived for ages under conditions ill calculated to develop the good qualities for which the Hos take credit. There has been a continual struggle to maintain what they consider their rights in the land, against the adverse interest of the landlord or his assigns. The very conditions under which most of them hold their lands place them in a position of dependence and inferiority, as they have to labour for their landlord as well as pay rent to him. Moreover, they live among a people who look down on them as a degraded race, and one of whose favourite theories is, that the Kols were created to serve them. This, no doubt, must be as demoralizing as it is aggravating; and in many places the Mundas and Uráons have listened to it so long that they begin to accept the doctrine, and calmly subside into the position of serfdom allotted to them. The licentiousness indulged in by Mundas and Hos at their great festival is, of course, incompatible with purity and chastity, and there is no doubt that the majority of the elders are terrible sots; but in Singbhúm the rising generation show a disposition to abandon licentious habits, and it is satisfactory to know that they can be entirely weaned from them. About seven thousand Mundas have now (1872) embraced Christianity, and recently the movement has extended to the Hos of Singbhúm. One of the *mánkis*, with all his family and a considerable number of his villagers, has been baptized; and, generally speaking, all those who have embraced our religion have entirely withdrawn from participation in the wild revelry of their pagan brethren. Their pastors have made this a test of their sincerity, and it is no doubt a very severe one. The women must lay aside all their trinkets, and should not be seen, even as spectators, at dances. The race generally are duller of comprehension and more difficult to teach than Hindus or Muhammadans. With the exception of those who embrace Christianity, the Mundas are usually unwilling to learn; but the Hos have of late years evinced considerable interest in education, and the progress they make is satisfactory, their anxiety to learn and wonderful diligence making up for sluggishness in intellect.'

Kol Population.—Owing to the loose use of the term Kol, which, as stated above, is in many cases applied to the whole group of tribes speaking Kolarian dialects, it was found impossible for the Census

officers to present any satisfactory return of the Kol population in the more restricted ethnical sense in which the word is used as referring to the Mundas, Hos, and Bhúmij, who make up the tribe commonly known as Kol. In the ethnical sense the Kol tribe is confined mainly to the Chutiá Nágpur Districts and States, and to certain Districts in the Central Provinces. In Bengal, the Census statements for 1881 show a total number of 871,666 Kols, of whom 613,863 were returned as professing aboriginal religions, and 257,803 as Hindus. In the Central Provinces, out of a total of 78,000 Kols, 35,804 were returned as aborigines by religion, and 42,196 as Hindus. These figures show a total of 949,666 persons returned as Kols. The Bengal Census Report of 1881 states—'On the one hand they [the returns for the Kols] include members of various tribes which have separate names, but belong to the great Kolarian family; and on the other hand they do not include all the persons to whom the term is properly applicable, and who may have been entered with closer specification as Mundas, Hos, Bhúmij, or Khariás. . . . All that can be said is, not that all the Kols are entered under that name, but only that all those who are entered as Kols are Kolarians.' In the language returns of the Census Report, the total number of persons returned as speaking Kolarian languages is 1,140,489.

Kolába.—A British District in the Konkán or Southern Division of the Bombay Presidency. Lies between 17° 52′ and 18° 50′ N. lat., and 73° 7′ and 73° 42′ E. long. Bounded on the north and north-east by the Bombay harbour, the Panwel and Karjat Sub-divisions of Thána District, and the Amba river; on the east by the Sahyádri Hills, the Bhor State, the territory of Pant Sachiv, and the Districts of Poona and Satára; on the south and south-west by Ratnágiri; and on the west by the Janjira State and (for 18 miles) by the Arabian Sea. Area, 1496 square miles. Population (1881) 381,649; density of population, 255 persons per square mile. Land revenue (1882–83), £79,896. Chief town, ALIBAGH.

Physical Aspect, etc.—Kolába District is a rugged belt of country from 15 to 30 miles broad, stretching from the south of Bombay harbour to the foot of the Mahábaleshwar hills, 75 miles south-east. Situated between the Sahyádri Hills and the sea, the District contains spurs of considerable regularity and height, running westwards at right angles to the main range, as well as isolated peaks or lofty detached ridges. A series of minor ranges also run north and south between the main range and the sea. The great wall of the Sahyádris forms the chief natural feature. Apparently bare of vegetation, a near approach discovers well-wooded ravines and glades of evergreen forest. The sea frontage of the District, of 18 miles, is throughout the greater part of its length fringed by a belt of cocoa-nut and areca-nut palms. Behind

this belt is situated a stretch of flat country devoted to rice cultivation. In many places, along the banks of the salt-water creeks, there are extensive tracts of salt marsh land, some of them reclaimed, some still subject to tidal inundation, and others set apart for the manufacture of salt. A few small streams, rising in the hills to the east of the District, pass through it to the sea. Tidal inlets, of which the principal are the Amba or Nágothna in the north, the Kundalika, Roha or Chaul in the west, the Mándád in the south-west, and the Sávitri or Bánkot creek in the south, run inland for 25 or 30 miles, forming highways for a brisk trade in rice, salt, firewood, and dried fish. The creek of the Pen river is navigable to Antora, 4 miles from Pen, for boats of seven tons (28 *khandis*) during ordinary tides, and to boats of thirty-five tons (140 *khandis*) during spring tides. Near the coast especially, the District is well supplied with reservoirs. Some of these are handsomely built of cut stone; but none are very large, and only a few hold water throughout the year. The Alíbágh reservoir, built in 1876, has an area of 7 acres and a depth of 20 feet. The well water of the coast villages is somewhat brackish, and the supply near the Sahyádri Hills is very defective. Hot springs are found at Unheri, Son, and Kondivti.

On spurs of the Sahyádri range are two remarkable peaks,—Ráigarh (*Ráygad*), in the Mahád Sub-division, where Sivají built his capital; and Mirádongar, a station of the Trigonometrical Survey. Two passes in the range are suitable for wheeled traffic, the Fitzgerald pass and the Varandha pass, the roads of which unite in the trading town of Mahád. There are several minor passes adapted for foot passengers.

The teak and blackwood forests of Kolába are very valuable. The Kolába teak (Tectona grandis) has by competent judges been pronounced the best grown in the Konkán, and inferior only to that of Calicut. The value of the forests is increased by their proximity to Bombay, for they may be said to lie around the mouth of the harbour. The curved knees are particularly adapted for the building of small vessels. The timber trade of the District has two main branches,—an inland trade in wood for building purposes, and a coast trade in firewood and crooks for shipbuilding. The area under the Forest Department in 1881 was about 153 square miles. During the nine years ending 1878, the forest revenue has increased from £2488 (1871–72) to £9194 (1877–78), averaging a little over £5000. Since the augmentation of the forest staff in 1878, the charges have been greater than the revenue. In 1880–81, the gross forest revenue of Kolába District amounted to £5152. The only mineral known to occur is iron. Road-metalling is abundant, and sand is found in all the creeks.

Tigers and leopards are found all over the District, and bears on the Sahyádri Hills. Hyænas and jackals abound. Bison, *sámbhar*, and cheetah have been shot, but are very rare. Serviceable ponies and

goats are numerous. In the coast villages, the fishermen cure large quantities of fish for export to Bombay by the inland creeks. The sea fisheries, especially of the Alíbágh villages, are of considerable importance, and afford a livelihood to 6800 fishermen in the District. The chief species caught, mostly by means of stake-nets, are *pomphlet, bamelo* or *bombil, halwa*, and others. A row of stakes with its accompanying net costs about £30.

Kolába island formed in ancient times a shelter for the piratical fleets of Western India. The island is situated just outside Alibágh harbour, about a furlong from the shore, and was in the last century the stronghold of the Angriá family. In 1662, Sivají rebuilt and strengthened Kolába fort, and converted it into a regular buccaneering stronghold. In 1722, a combined expedition of British ships and Portuguese troops made an unsuccessful attack upon it. Kolába fort continued to be an active scene of Angriá's operations, and survived the sharp measures of Clive against that chief. In 1771, Forbes describes it as still an important place, where the Angriá of that day lived in much splendour. The rise of the Indian navy during the second half of the last century put an end to piracy on an organized scale in Bombay waters.

History.—Hindu, Muhammadan, Maráthá, and British rulers have, as throughout most of the peninsula, in turn administered the District of Kolába. But it is the rise, daring, and extinction of the pirate power of the Maráthá Angriá that vest the history of this part of the Konkán with a peculiar interest.

The early rulers were most probably local chiefs. Shortly after the beginning of the Christian era, the semi-mythical Andrabhrítya dynasty, whose capital was Kolhápur, were the over-lords of Kolába. About this time (135 A.D. to 150 A.D.), the Greek geographer Ptolemy describes the region of Kolába under the name of Symulla or Timulla, most likely the Chaul of later days. In Ptolemy's time the Shata Karnis or Andrabhrítyas were ruling in the Konkán as well as in the Deccan; and for many years the ports on the Kolába seaboard were the emporia of a large traffic, not only inland, over the Sahyádri passes across the peninsula to Bengal, but by way of the Red Sea and the Persian Gulf to Egypt, Arabia, and Abyssinia. In the sixth century Kolába, with all the northern Konkán, came under the sway of the Chálukyas, whose general, Channa-danda, sweeping the Mauryas or local rulers before him 'like a great wave,' captured the Maurya citadel Puri, 'the goddess of the fortunes of the western ocean.' In the thirteenth century, by which time the rule of the Chálukyas had passed away, the District was held by the Deogiri (Daulatábád) Yadávas.

Immediately prior to the appearance of the Muhammadans, tradition assigns to Kolába a dynasty of Kánara kings. Nothing, however, is

known about them. The Báhmanis, who ruled from 1347 to 1489, reduced the whole Konkán to obedience, and held Chaul as well as other posts in Kolába District. The Báhmani dynasty was followed by kings from Gujarát. A period of Portuguese ascendancy established at Chaul (1507–1660) preceded the rise of the Angriás, and was partly contemporaneous with the conquest of all the rest of the District by the Mughals and Maráthás. The Mughals, who acquired the sovereignty in 1600, were in 1632 ousted by Sháhjí Bhonsla, father of Sivají, the founder of Maráthá conquest. Sivají built two small forts near Ghosale and Ráigarh, repaired the great strongholds of Suvarndrúg and Vijayadrúg, which stand on the coast-line below Bombay; and in 1674 caused himself to be enthroned at Ráigarh. Nine years after Sivají's death, in 1680, the seizure of Ráigarh restored control of the country to the Mughals. The period of the Angriás, who terrorized the coast while the Muhammadans were powerful inland, lasted for one hundred and fifty years—from 1690 to 1840, when Kánhojí II. died in infancy and the country was taken over by the British.

Kánhojí, the first of the Angriás, was in 1698 the admiral of the Maráthá fleet, having his head-quarters at Kolába, an island-fort close to Alíbágh and within two or three miles of the present city of Bombay. From here he had long harassed shipping on the coast from Malabár to Bombay; in 1713 he threw off his allegiance to the Peshwá, and having defeated and captured his suzerain, set up an independent rule in ten forts and sixteen minor posts along the Konkán coasts. Having conquered the Sidis of Janjira, his rivals in buccaneering, Kánhojí with a considerable fleet of vessels, ranging from 150 to 200 tons burthen, swept the seas from his fort of Vijayadrúg. In 1717, his first piracies against English trade occurred. In retaliation the English assaulted Vijayadrúg, but the assault was beaten off. On two occasions within the next four years, Kánhojí withstood the combined attacks of English and Portuguese. On his death in 1731, the Angriá chiefship was weakened by division between Kánhojí's two sons, of whom Sambhojí Angriá was the more enterprising and able. Sambhojí was succeeded in 1748 by Tulají; and from now until the fall of Vijayadrúg before the allied forces of the Peshwá and the British Government at Bombay, both English and Dutch commerce suffered severely from the Angriá pirates.

In 1756, the fort of Vijayadrúg was captured by Admiral Watson and Colonel (afterwards Lord) Clive, who commanded the land forces. Fifteen hundred prisoners were taken, eight English and three Dutch captains were rescued from the underground dungeons in the neighbourhood of the fortress, and treasure to the value of £125,000 was divided among the captors. Vijayadrúg was handed over to the Peshwá, under whom piracy flourished as vigorously as under the Angriás. Under the

Peshwá, Manají and Raghojí, the descendants of an illegitimate branch of the first Angriás, held Kolába fort as feudatories of Poona. On the fall of the Peshwá's rule in 1818, the allegiance of the Angriás was transferred to the British. In 1840, the death of Kánhojí II., the last representative of the original Angriás, afforded an opportunity to the Bombay Government to annex the forts of Suvarndrúg, Vijayadrúg, and Kolába. The District has since enjoyed unbroken peace.

Kolába District, with the exception of the Sub-division of Alíbágh, formed part of the dominions of the Peshwá, annexed by the Bombay Government in 1818, on the overthrow of Bájí Ráo. Alíbágh lapsed to the Paramount Power in 1840. Kolába island has still an evil reputation with mariners, as the scene of many wrecks. Full nautical details regarding it are given in Taylor's *Sailing Directions*. Many houses in the town are built from the driftwood of vessels which have gone ashore. Ships are sometimes supposed to be intentionally wrecked here; the coast near Alíbágh presents fair facilities for the escape of the crews.

Population.—In 1872, the population of the District was returned at 350,405. The Census returns of 1881 disclosed a total population of 381,649 persons, residing in 974 towns and villages, and 71,930 occupied and 7335 unoccupied houses; density of the population, 255 persons per square mile; houses per square mile, 52·9; persons per village, 392; persons per house, 5·30. The population has thus increased 31,244 since 1872, or nearly 9 per cent., in nine years. Classified according to sex, there are 191,952 males and 189,697 females; proportion of males, 50·29 per cent. Classified according to age, there are, under 15 years, 81,554 boys and 74,602 girls; total children, 156,156, or 40 per cent. of the population. The religious division shows 360,117 Hindus, 17,891 Musalmáns, 1164 Jains, and 33 Pársís. Of the remainder, 2139 are Jews (Beni-Israel), and 305 Christians. The Hindus, who form 94 per cent. of the population, include—Bráhmans, 13,789; Rájputs, 167; Agárias, 44,191; Bhandáris, 5982; Chamárs, 6248; Darjís, 1637; Dhobís (washermen), 1566; Nápits (barbers), 3153; Kunbís (cultivators), 159,335; Kolís (gardeners), 14,869; Kumbhárs (potters), 3732; Lingáyats (mostly shopkeepers), 1463; Malís (gardeners), 11,260; Mangs and Mhars (inferior castes), 34,847; Sonárs (goldsmiths), 5229; Sutárs (carpenters), 3670; Telís (oilmen), 844; Gaulis (cowherds), 7332; Dhángars (shepherds), 3543; Jangams, 1286; Lohárs, 328; and 'other' Hindus, 35,646. The Muhammadan tribes are thus distributed—Patháns, 401; Sayyids, 162; Shaikhs, 17,230; and 'other' Muhammadans, 98.

Classified according to occupation, the males are placed in the Census under the following six main groups:—(1) Professional class, including State officials of every kind and the learned professions, 3166;

(2) domestic servants, inn and lodging-house keepers, 3945; (3) commercial class, including bankers, merchants, carriers, etc., 2911; (4) agricultural class, including shepherds and gardeners, 83,052; (5) industrial class, including all manufacturers and artisans, 13,131; and (6) indefinite and non-productive class, comprising general labourers, male children, and persons of unspecified occupation, 85,747.

Kolába contains the following six towns, namely—PEN (population, 8082); REWADANDA (6908); MAHAD (6804); ALIBAGH (6376); CHAUL (5355); ROHA-ASHTAMI (4894). Of the places of interest the following may be mentioned—the Kuda and Pále caves, and Raigarh and Kolába forts. Of the 975 towns and villages in the District in 1881, 354 contained less than two hundred inhabitants; 429 from two to five hundred; 140 from five hundred to one thousand; 41 from one to two thousand; 2 from two to three thousand; 4 from three to five thousand; and 5 from five to ten thousand.

Among Hindus, the most important classes are the Bráhmans, who own large gardens and palm groves along the coast. In the south they are the landlords or *khots* of many villages, holding the position of middlemen between Government and the actual cultivators.

Of the hill tribes, there are the Thákurs and Káthkaris; of unsettled tribes, the Vadars and the Banjáras. The Thákurs (3629) are small squat men, with hard irregular features, in some degree redeemed by an honest, kindly expression. They speak Maráthí; they are honest, harmless, and hard-working, the women doing quite as much work as the men. When not employed on land cultivation, they find stray jobs or gather firewood for sale. The Káthkaris (10,292) are cultivators, labourers, and firewood sellers. Their women, tall and slim, singularly dirty and unkempt, are hard workers, and help the men by hawking head-loads of firewood. Káthkaris, as a rule, are much darker and slimmer than the other forest tribes; they rank among the lowest of the low, their very touch being thought to defile. They eat every sort of flesh, except the cow and the brown-faced monkey. They are poor, and much given to drinking. The Vadars (232) are rude, intemperate, and unsettled in their habits, gathering wherever building is going on. They are quarry-men, and make grindstones, hand-mills, and rolling-pins. They dig wells and ponds, and trade in and carry salt and grain. They are poor, living from hand to mouth.

The Beni-Israel, or Indian Jews, are chiefly found in the seaboard tracts. They are of two classes, the white and black; the white, according to their own story, are descended from the original immigrants; while the black are descendants of converts or of women of the country. A considerable number of them enlist in the native army, and are esteemed as soldiers. They maintain the rite of circumcision, and faithfully accept the Old Testament. Their social and religious

discipline is administered by elders, the chief of whom are called Kádis. Their home language is Maráthí, but in the synagogues their scriptures are read in Hebrew. The Jews monopolize the work of oil-pressing to so great an extent, that they are generally known as oilmen or *telís*. The late Dr. Wilson was of opinion that the Beni-Israel are descended from the lost tribes, founding his belief upon the fact that they possessed none of the Jewish names which date after the captivity, and none of the Jewish scriptures or writings after that date.

Some of the Musalmáns are the descendants of converted Hindus; others trace their origin to foreign invaders; and a few are said to represent the early Arab traders and settlers. But of these last there is not, so low down the western coast, any distinct community, and there are few families that have not intermarried with Musalmáns of the country.

Agriculture.—Agriculture is the most important industry of Kolába District; the total agricultural population in 1881 was returned at 147,525, giving an average of 3·4 cultivable and cultivated acres per head. The total number, however, dependent on the soil amounted to 258,641, or 67·77 per cent. of the District population. Of the total District area of 1496 square miles, 804 square miles are assessed for revenue. Of these, 792 square miles are under cultivation; 12 square miles are cultivable; and 692 non-revenue-paying. Total amount of Government assessment, including local rates and cesses on land, £77,909, or an average of 3s. 0¾d. per cultivated acre.

There are four descriptions of soil:—(1) Alluvial, composed of various disintegrated rocks of the overlying trap formation, with a larger or smaller proportion of calcareous substance. This is by far the richest variety, and occupies the greater portion of the District. (2) Soil formed by the disintegration of laterite and trap, covering the slopes of the hills and plateaux. Though fitted for the cultivation of some crops, such as *nágliwari* and hemp, this soil, owing to its shallowness, soon becomes exhausted, and has to be left fallow for a few years. (3) Clayey mould, resting upon trap, called *khárápát* or salt land. (4) Soil containing marine deposits, a large portion of sand, and other matter in concretion. This last lies immediately upon the sea-coast, and is favourable for garden crops.

A peculiarity of Kolába District is the *khoti* tenure, which exists in 485 villages. The *khot* was originally a mere farmer of the revenue from year to year, but this right to act as middleman became hereditary, although he had no proprietary right. Under the Survey, the *khot*, as peasant proprietor, pays the survey rates; while the actual cultivators pay rent to the *khot*, not exceeding an excess of 50 per cent. above the Government demand, and this constitutes the profit of the *khot*.

The agricultural stock in the District amounted in 1881–82 to 29,902

ploughs, 2938 carts, 50,305 bullocks, 40,310 cows, 39,398 buffaloes, 447 horses, 15,307 sheep and goats, 41 asses. Of 483,096 acres, the total area of Government cultivable land, 476,643 acres, or 98·66 per cent., were taken up for cultivation in 1881–82. Of these, 168,731 acres were under grass or occupied by salt-pans; of the remainder, 307,912 acres were under actual tillage, 5259 of which were twice cropped. Food-grains covered 287,267 acres, or 93·23 per cent. of the cultivated area; pulses, 16,572, or 5·38 per cent.; oil-seeds, 4902, or 1·59 per cent.; fibres, 1587, or 0·51 per cent.; and miscellaneous crops, 2843 acres, or 0·92 per cent. Rice of many varieties, occupying 141,835 acres, or 46·06 per cent. of the area actually under cultivation in 1881–82, is the staple produce of the District, and forms the chief article of export. The finest varieties are called *kolamba* and *ámbemor*, after them *patni*, *nirpúnj*, and *bodak*, otherwise called *kothímbre*.

Rice is grown on saline as well as on sweet land. Between December and May, the plot of ground chosen for a nursery is covered with cow-dung and brushwood; this is overlaid with thick grass, and earth is spread over the surface; the whole is then set fire to on the leeward side, generally towards morning, after the heavy dew has collected. In June, after the land has been sprinkled by a few showers, the nursery is sown and then ploughed. The plants shoot up after a few heavy falls of rain. In the beginning of July, the seedlings are planted out at a distance of from 8 to 10 inches apart in fields previously ploughed and cleared. The land is weeded from time to time. Between October and November, the reaping commences. The cut crop is left on the field, where it is spread out to dry more perfectly; it is afterwards tied up in sheaves and built into a stack. After a month or so, the threshing commences. A small piece of hard ground (sometimes a rock) is selected, and the sheaves are then beaten against the ground, the straw being kept for fodder or thatch. The winnowing follows, which is effected by filling a flat shovel-shaped basket with grain, and slowly emptying it from as great a height as the upraised arms can reach. In saline land no plough is used, neither is the soil manured. In the beginning of June, when the ground has become thoroughly saturated, the seed is either sown in the mud, or wherever the land is low and subject to the overflow of rain-water. No transplanting takes place, but thinning is done when necessary. Should a field by any accident be flooded by salt water for three years in succession, the crops would be deteriorated.

Especially in the northern Sub-divisions, Alíbágh and Pen, the most interesting feature in the tillage of Kolába District is the large area of salt marsh and mangrove swamps that has been reclaimed for the growth of rice. These tracts, situated along the banks of tidal creeks, are locally known as *khárepát* or saline land. Most of the embankments or

shilotris, which save the land from tidal flooding, are said to have been built between 1755 and 1780 under the Angriás by men of position and capital, who, with the title of *shilotridárs* or dam-keepers, undertook, on the grant of special terms, to make the embankments and to keep them in repair. For many years these reclamations were divided into rice-fields and salt-pans. The salt-pans were gradually closed between 1858 and 1872; and about two-thirds of the area formerly devoted to salt making has now been brought under tillage. Each reclamation has two banks, an outer and an inner. In the outer bank are sluice-gates which are kept closed from October to June; and, as soon as the rains set in, are opened to allow the rain water to escape. Two years after the embankment is completed, rice is sown in the reclaimed land, in order that the decayed straw may offer a resting-place, and supply nourishment to grass seeds. Five years generally elapse before any crop is raised. More than 9000 acres have been reclaimed in this way. The reclamation of saline land is encouraged by no revenue being levied for the first ten years, and full revenue only after thirty years.

The inferior kinds of grain called *nachni* (Eleusine corocana), *wari* (Panicum miliaceum), *harik* (Paspalum scrobiculatum), which form the chief food-supply of the people, are also grown in considerable quantities, especially on the flat tops and terraced sides of the hills. Cotton, now rarely grown, was cultivated with considerable success during the great development of the production of Indian cotton at the close of last century.

A skilled labourer earns from 1s. to 2s. a day; unskilled, from 3½d. to 6d.; cart hire per day, from 1s. 6d. to 2s.; boat (*machwás*) hire per day, from 10s. to 16s. The current prices of the chief articles of food during 1881 were, for a rupee—rice, 24 lbs.; wheat, 21 lbs.; *dál* (split peas), 19 lbs.; *bájra*, 28 lbs.; and gram, 25 lbs.

Natural Calamities.—The oldest scarcity of which local memory remains was the famine of 1803. The distress caused by want of rain and failure of crops was increased by the influx of starving people from the Deccan. Many children are said to have been sold for food. The price of rice rose to about two pounds the rupee. To relieve distress, entire remissions of revenue, during periods varying from eight months to two years, were granted. In 1817–18, there was a great scarcity of food, approaching to a famine. In 1848, in the old Sankshi division, part of the rice crop on saline land was damaged by unusually high spring-tides. Remissions were granted to the amount of £3775. In 1852, heavy rain damaged grain and other produce stacked in the fields. In 1854, an exceedingly good harvest was the outcome of a most favourable rainfall. But, on 1st of November, a terrible hurricane completely destroyed every sort of field produce, whether standing or stacked, felling also cocoa-nut and areca-nut plantations. Remissions to the

amount of more than £1200 were granted. In 1871 there was a serious drought, particularly in the southern half of the District. In 1875–76, and in 1876–77, floods did much damage to the same tract. In 1878–79, the cold-weather crops were damaged by locusts.

Trade, etc.—The principal trade centres of the District are Pen, Nágothna, Rewádanda, Roha, Ghodegáon, and Mahád. The chief articles of export are rice, salt, firewood, timber, vegetables, fruits, and dried fish. The imports consist of Malabár teak, brass pots from Poona and Násik, dates, grain, piece-goods, oil, butter, garlic, potatoes, turmeric, sugar, and molasses. The local manufactures barely suffice for local wants. Salt is extensively made by evaporation, and its production furnishes profitable employment in the fair season, when the cultivators are not engaged in agriculture. The weaving of silk—a relic of Portuguese times—is practised at Chaul; but the manufacture has declined since 1668, about which time a migration of weavers took place, and the first street was built in Bombay to receive them. The extraction of oil from *tíl* (Sesamum), the cocoa-nut, and the ground-nut, and the preparation of cocoa-nut fibre, also support many families. The District appears on the whole to be well supplied with means of transporting and exporting produce, a great portion being within easy reach of water-carriage. There are 13 seaports in the District: during the eight years ending 1881–82, the total value of sea-borne trade averaged £285,916, being—imports £100,218, and exports £185,698. In 1881–82, the imports were valued at £93,617; exports, £174,459; total value, £268,076. Minor markets and fairs are held periodically at twenty-three places in the District. The yearly rate of interest varies from 6 to 24 per cent. Baniyas from Márwár and Gujarát are the chief shopkeepers and money-lenders.

Communications.—In 1881 there were 12 roads in the District, with a total length of 187 miles; 139 miles of this number are unbridged fair-weather roads. The Amba is crossed at Kolád by a ferry. The number of toll-bars is eight, five of them placed on the Mahábaleshwar Trunk Road. The largest bridge in the District is one of 56 spans at Mangáon, across the Nizámpur-Kál. At Nágothna there is a masonry bridge, built in 1580 at a cost of three *lákhs* of rupees, to facilitate the march of the Ahmadnagar kings' troops into Chaul. A steam ferry plies daily between Bombay harbour, Revas, and Dharambar. The chief passes across the Sahyádris are—the Pár, the Fitzgerald, the Varandha, the Umbarda, and Kávályа. The only lighthouse in Kolába District stands on the highest point of the island of Khándari or Kenery, a small island near the entrance of the Bombay harbour, 11 miles south of Bombay. Lat. 18° 42′ 8″ N., long. 72° 48′ 17″ E. It consists of an octagonal tower 75 feet high from base to vane, built on a flat-roofed house, with a single fixed white dioptric light of the first order, which

in clear weather is visible for 20 miles from the deck of a ship. The height of the lantern above high water is 161 feet, and its area of illumination is 225° of the horizon.

Administration.—Kolába was first attached to Ratnágiri and then to Thána District. In 1853 it was made a Sub-collectorate, and in 1869 an independent District. For administrative purposes Kolába is divided into 5 Sub-divisions. The gross revenue in 1882–83 amounted to £107,611, showing, on a population of 381,649, an incidence per head of 5s. 7½d. The land-tax forms the principal source of income, yielding £79,896. Other important items are stamps, forest, and local dues. The latter, created since 1863 for works of public utility and rural education, yielded (1881) a total sum of £7976. There are 4 municipalities—Alíbágh, Pen, Roha-Ashtami, Mahád—containing an aggregate population of 26,156 persons, and having (1882) an income of £2415. The incidence of municipal taxation varies from 1s. 0½d. to 1s. 9d. per head. The administration of the District is entrusted to a Collector and two Assistants, of whom one is a covenanted civilian.

Kolába is included in the local jurisdiction of the Judge of Thána. For the settlement of civil disputes there are 5 civil judges, and the number of suits decided in 1881–82 was 3242. Fourteen officers share the administration of criminal justice. The total strength of the regular police in 1881 consisted of 346 officers and men, giving 1 man to every 4·32 square miles, or to every 1103 persons. Total cost, £5418, equal to £3, 12s. 5d. per square mile of area, and 4d. per head of the population. The number of persons convicted of any offence, great or small, was 923, being 1 person to every 413 of the population. There are 14 post-offices in the District. In 1855–56 there was only 1 school, attended by 108 pupils; in 1881–82 there were 79 schools, attended by 4990 pupils, or an average of 1 school for every 12 inhabited villages.

Medical Aspects.—There are four distinct climatic periods—the rains from June to October; the damp hot weather in October and November on the cessation of the rains; the cold weather from December to March; and the dry hot weather from March to June. In the region about Alíbágh there is said to be always a sea-breeze. The time of the rains is considered the healthy period of the year. *Bagalyás*, or devils, is the local name given to the sudden, short, and violent hot dust storms that occur. The number of deaths registered in 1881 was 7723, at the rate of 20·23 per thousand of the population. Average rainfall during five years ending 1881, 83 inches. The minimum temperature during the period 1875–1879 was 72·6° F., and the maximum 91·3°. In 1881, 3 dispensaries afforded medical relief to 207 in-door and 24,428 out-door patients. [For further information regarding Kolába District, see the *Bombay Gazetteer*, compiled under

the orders of the Government of Bombay, by Mr. J. M. Campbell, C.S., vol. vi., Kolába and Janjira (Government Central Press, Bombay, 1883). Also the *Settlement Report of Kolába District*, by Major J. T. Francis (1863); the *Bombay Census Report* for 1881; and the several Annual Administration and Departmental Reports of the Presidency from 1880 to 1883.]

Kolába.—Point or spur of land protecting the entrance to Bombay harbour on the north, and comprised within the limits of the city of Bombay. It was originally a chain of small islands, now connected with each other and with the island of Bombay by causeways and reclaimed tracts. The northern portion of Kolába contains docks, factories, and other important commercial and industrial buildings of Bombay city; it is also the terminus of the Bombay, Baroda, and Central India Railway. In the centre are the quarters of the European garrison of Bombay city; and at the southern point, about 2½ miles south-west by south from Bombay Castle, are the lunatic asylum, the observatory, and the old lighthouse, for which was substituted in 1874 a lighthouse with first-class flashing dioptric light, about a mile seaward of the old lighthouse, on the 'Prongs,' a dangerous reef running south from Kolába Point.

Kolábirá.—*Zamíndári* estate in Sambalpur District, Central Provinces; situated in the north-east corner of the District, bordering on Bámrá and Gangpur States. Population (1881) 31,246, namely, males 15,877, and females 15,369, chiefly agriculturists, residing in 242 villages and 7194 houses, on an area of 231 square miles, of which two-thirds are cultivated. Products—rice, pulses, oil-seeds, sugar-cane, and cotton. Principal villages—Kolábirá (lat. 21° 48′ N., long. 84° 12′ 30″ E.; population in 1881, 790), which contains a good school; and Raghunáthpalli, with a population of about 1100. The estate was created in the time of Jeth Singh, Rájá of Sambalpur, about 1760. During the Mutiny of 1857 the chief was hanged, and his son died an outlaw; but the estate was restored to the family after the amnesty. Estimated income of the *zamíndár*, £309; tribute payable to Government, £109. The old road from Sambalpur town to Chutiá Nágpur traverses the estate.

Koláchel (*Colachy-Coleci*—Bartolomeo; possibly the *Kolias* of Strabo).—Town in Travancore State, Madras Presidency. Lat. 8° 10′ N., and long. 77° 19′ E., in the southernmost corner of India; containing 1038 houses and (1875) 4768 inhabitants. Not returned in the Census Report of 1881. A place of yearly increasing importance. South Travancore coffee is here prepared and exported. Koláchel is now a regular port for coasting steamers. Since 1870, the annual tonnage of ships calling has increased from 4000 to 37,000. The imports are valued at £13,500, the exports at £68,000; of the latter, 85 per cent.

represent the trade in coffee. The port was of value some centuries ago, and was occupied by the Danes; it is referred to by Bartolomeo as a safe harbour well known to the ancients.

Koladyne.—River in Akyab District, British Burmah.—*See* KULADAN.

Kolair.—Lake in Kistna and Godávari Districts, Madras Presidency. —*See* KOLAR.

Kolak.—Port in the Párdi Sub-division of Surat District, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 20° 27′ 30″ N., long. 72° 57′ E. Situated at the mouth of the Kolak river, where the channel is 498 feet broad, and can only be crossed by boats. Vessels of 60 tons can enter and find a good landing. Beyond the bar are the beds of oysters for which the Kolak is famous. About eight miles up the river the Bombay, Baroda, and Central India Railway has a bridge 438 feet long and 33 feet high. Value of trade for the year 1874—imports £1255, and exports £3232; no later statistics are available.

Kolakambái.—River, coffee-growing tract, hill peak (5600 feet above sea-level), with a waterfall north-east of the peak, having an unbroken fall of 400 feet, in the District of the Nílgiri Hills, Madras Presidency.

Kolang (*Kolong*).—Village in the Láhul tract of Kángra District, Punjab; situated on the right bank of the Bhága river, about ten miles above Kyelang. One of the principal places in Láhul, and the residence of the Thákur or head-man (*negi*) of the whole Láhul valley.

Kolár.—District in the Native State of Mysore, forming the eastern portion of the Nandidrúg (Nundydroog) Division. It is situated between 12° 46′ and 13° 36′ N. lat., and between 78° 5′ and 78° 35′ E. long.; bounded on the north and north-east by Bellary and Cuddapah Districts, on the south-east and south by North Arcot and Salem Districts, and on the west by Bangalore and Túmkúr Districts of Mysore. It contains an area of 1891 square miles, and a population, according to the Census of 1881, of 461,129 persons. The administrative head-quarters are at KOLAR town, 6 miles from the right bank of the Pálár river.

Physical Aspects.—Kolár District occupies that portion of the Mysore table-land immediately bordering the Eastern Gháts. The principal watershed lies in the north-west, around the hill of Nandidrúg, rising to 4810 feet above the sea, from which rivers radiate in all directions; and the whole country is broken by numerous hill ranges. The chief rivers are the Pálár, the South Pinákiní or Pennár, the North Pinákiní, and the Pápaghní, which are industriously utilized for irrigation by means of anicuts and tanks. In no other part of Mysore has the tank system been more fully developed. The entire water-supply of the Pálár is thus intercepted, while of the North Pinákiní and its affluents upwards of 85 per cent. of the drainage is utilized. The largest tank is the Rámságar, which is capable of irrigating 1500 acres.

The rocks are mostly syenite or granite, with a small admixture of mica and felspar. There is one range of a soft ferruginous clay-slate, which yields gold in small quantities; and of late years the subject of gold-mining in the District has attracted considerable attention. The total yield of the precious metal by washing from the alluvial soil was estimated in 1876 at about 4 lbs. per annum. A licence was granted to a European to 'prospect' the auriferous strata upon a scientific plan; a small European gold colony has established itself in Kolár; and prospecting is being industriously carried on. Three hundred and seventy-three iron mines and quarries were worked in 1880. The estimated produce of the iron mines was 28,160 lbs. The soil in the valleys of Kolár consists of a fertile loam, formed from the finer particles of the decomposed rocks washed down during the rains. On the higher levels, sand and gravel are found, and the cultivation is there confined to dry grains and pulses.

The hills are covered with scrub jungle and brushwood. The only tract where the trees attain any size is in the neighbourhood of Nandidrúg, where an area of 7 square miles has been reserved by the Forest Department. In recent years, avenues of large trees have been planted along all the high roads, and the peasants are encouraged to plant groves of their own. The wild animals met with include bears, leopards, wild hog, and hyænas.

History.—The early history of Kolár is involved in the usual Hindu legends, chiefly localized at the village of Avani, which is identified with Avántika-kshetra, one of the ten sacred places of India, still a popular place of pilgrimage, and said formerly to have contained a *linga* set up by Ráma himself on his return to Ayodhya from the conquest of Lanka or Ceylon. Here, too, Sita, the wife of Ráma, is supposed to have given birth to her twin sons Kusa and Lava; and here Valmiki is represented as instructing them.

The earliest authentic evidence derived from inscriptions shows that this region in primitive times formed part of the kingdom of the Pallavas, who had Vengi as their capital. The Pallava kings were overthrown by Cholá kings, to whom is attributed the foundation of Kolár town. After the Cholás came the Ballála kings of the 12th century, who in their turn gave way to the powerful monarch of Vijáyanagar, in the early part of the 14th century.

About this period arose the Gauda family, whose numerous branches, springing from the 'seven farmers of Kanchi,' gradually established themselves in various strong places throughout the modern Districts of Bangalore and Kolár. Timme Gauda, one of the 'seven farmers' from Bangalore, became a favourite at the Vijáyanagar court, and was permitted to establish himself in the old fort of Kolár and to build Hoskote (the new fort). The Gauda chiefs appear to have

made no claim to independence, but to have submitted themselves successively to every conqueror who was strong enough to exercise temporary authority in those troubled times, until they were swept away by the organized empire of Haidar Alí.

The first Muhammadans to invade this tract were the Bijápur kings, whose general was the Maráthá Sháhjí, father of Sivají. In 1639, Sháhjí obtained Kolár as a fief, which he transmitted to his son Venkojí, the founder of the Tanjore line. Subsequently Kolár was overrun by the Mughals, and placed under the government of Fateh Muhammad, whose famous son, Haidar Alí, was born here at the little village of Budikot. In 1761, the District was formally ceded to Haidar Alí by the Nizám; and after the fall of Tipú in 1799, it was incorporated in the Hindu State of Mysore. The chief historical interest of modern times centres round the hill fort of Nandidrúg (Nundydroog), which was stormed by the British in 1791, under the eye of Lord Cornwallis, after a bombardment of twenty-one days.

Two towns have a local history, viz. Chikballapur and Gumnáyakanpalya. The former was founded about 1479 by one of the Gauda family, and rapidly grew into the capital of a petty kingdom, whose rock fortress was at Nandidrúg. The *pálegár* of his time successfully resisted the conquering Hindu Rájá of Mysore in the beginning of the 18th century; but, like the rest of his compeers, he fell before the might of Haidar Alí, and his dominions were absorbed in Mysore. Gumnáyakanpalya was founded about one hundred years earlier, as the fortress of a *pálegár*, whose line also was extinguished by Haidar Alí.

Population.—A *khánasumári* or house enumeration of the people in 1853-54 returned a total of 461,979 persons. The regular Census of 1871 ascertained the number to be 618,954, showing an increase of nearly 34 per cent. in the interval of eighteen years, if the earlier estimate can be trusted. The Census taken on February 17, 1881, gives the following statistics:—Total population, 461,129; males, 228,193, females, 232,936. Area, 1891 square miles; number of towns and villages, 2983; occupied houses, 77,633; unoccupied houses, 17,887; persons per square mile, 244; villages per square mile, 1·58; houses per square mile, 50·5; persons per occupied house, 5·94. In the *táluk* of Sidlagháta, which is reckoned to be peculiarly healthy, is found the greatest density of population in Mysore, about 375 per square mile. There are, under 15 years of age, 76,367 boys and 79,715 girls; total children, 156,082, or over 33 per cent. of the population.

The male population is classified under six main groups—(1) Professional class, including State officials of every kind and the learned professions, 12,225; (2) domestic servants, inn and lodging-house keepers, 563; (3) commercial class, including bankers, merchants, carriers, etc., 5836; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, including

gardeners, 127,151; (5) industrial class, including all manufacturers and artisans, 13,046; and (6) indefinite and non-productive class, comprising general labourers, male children, and persons of unspecified occupation, 69,372.

The religious division of the people shows—Hindus, 439,092, or 95 per cent.; Muhammadans, 20,664, or 4 per cent.; Jains, 504; and Christians, 869. The Hindus are further sub-divided according to caste, as follows:—Bráhmans, 21,685, of whom the majority belong to the Smarta sect; Kshattriyas, 1121; Komatis, 7534, mostly traders; and Nagatars, traders, 2408. Of inferior castes, by far the most numerous is the Vakkaligars (115,926), who are agricultural labourers; next come the Bedars (35,567), hunters; the Banajigas (31,287), traders; the Kurubas (28,669), shepherds. The Lingáyats, who have always been influential in this part of the country, number only 9823; out-castes are returned at 67,660, wandering tribes at 3973, and non-Hindu aboriginal tribes at 256. The Muhammadans, who muster thickest in the *táluks* of Kolár and Sriniváspur, are chiefly returned as Deccani Musalmáns. Classified by tribes, they are thus distributed:—Sunnís, 20,071; Shiás, 219; Wahábís, 42; Pindárís, 19; Labbais, 218; and 'others,' 95. Out of the total of 869 Christians, 76 are Europeans and 44 Eurasians, leaving 749 for the native converts. According to another principle of division, there are 386 Protestants and 483 Roman Catholics. The language chiefly spoken in the District is Kánarese.

Of the 2983 towns and villages in Kolár District, 2348 contain less than two hundred inhabitants; 529 from two hundred to five hundred; 78 from five hundred to one thousand; 20 from one to two thousand; 3 from two to three thousand; 1 from three to five thousand; 3 from five to ten thousand; and 1 from ten to fifteen thousand. The following towns, which are also municipalities, each contain more than 5000 inhabitants:—KOLAR, 11,172; CHIKBALLAPUR, 9133; SIDLAGHATA, 5804; CHINTAMANI, 5119. Apart from the towns already mentioned, the most interesting places in the District are—Avani, one of the ten places of greatest sanctity in India, and alleged to have been the residence of Valmiki, author of the *Rámáyana;* Avati, the original settlement of the 'seven Kanchi farmers;' Budikot, the birthplace of Haidar Alí; and the hill fort of Nandidrúg, with the sacred village of Nandi at its base. Both fort and town were captured by Lord Cornwallis in 1791.

Agriculture.—More than 45 per cent. of the people of the District (210,197) are directly engaged in agriculture. The agricultural products are substantially the same as those of the neighbouring District of Bangalore, except that the abundance of tanks encourages more attention to wet crops and vegetables. The staple food of the people consists of *rágí* (Eleusine corocana) and *joár* (Sorghum vulgare),

both of which come under the category of 'dry crops.' Rice, also, is largely grown in the lower valleys, and nearly half the annual produce is exported. It is estimated that in ordinary years the surplus of the food crops, to the value of about £50,000, is exported to Bangalore and the adjoining Districts of Madras. Besides various pulses and oil-seeds, the miscellaneous crops include sugar-cane, poppy, tobacco, and mulberry for silkworms. Among vegetables are turmeric, garlic, chilli, and potatoes. The cultivation, also, of *viledele* or betel-leaf, tamarind, and *kadale káyi* or ground nut, is very considerable.

The following are the agricultural statistics for 1880-81:—Total area under actual cultivation, 519 square miles; cultivable but not under cultivation, 342 square miles; uncultivable waste, 1030 square miles. Area under rice, 39,300 acres; wheat, 90; other food-grains, 260,244; oil-seeds, 12,500; sugar-cane, 7040; vegetables, 11,000; mulberry, 692; tobacco, 606; cocoa-nut and areca-nut, 739; fibres, 90; coffee, 45 acres. The current (1880) rents per acre in the District are as follows:—For rice land, 12s.; for wheat, 12s.; inferior grains, 3s.; cotton, 3s.; oil-seeds, 3s.; sugar-cane, £1, 4s.; tobacco, 12s. The out-turn of the land per acre was, in 1880, as follows:—Rice, 720 lbs.; wheat, 817 lbs.; inferior food-grains, 990 lbs.; oil-seeds, 598 lbs.; sugar-cane, 1420 lbs.; and tobacco, 438 lbs. The average assessment per acre of cultivated land is 4s. 8d.

The very large number of tanks forming chains along all the river valleys has already been alluded to as an element in the scenery of the District. The total is 5497, themselves covering an area of upwards of 120,000 acres. As many as 400 can be counted from the summit of Nandidrúg. In addition to these tanks, irrigation is also practised from small channels branching off from ancient anicuts or dams in the rivers. Manure is largely used for sugar-cane, which flourishes best in the Mulbágal *táluk.*

The indigenous cattle of the District are of a diminutive breed, but fine bulls are imported from the Madras frontier. Several large cattle fairs are held annually, of which the most frequented is at the village of Vánarási, where 60,000 bullocks sometimes change hands within the nine days during which the fair lasts. The fairs at Avani and Nandi are of scarcely second importance. In connection with these fairs, cattle shows with prizes have been instituted by Government, and the breeding of cattle has become a passion with well-to-do peasants. Buffaloes are commonly used for ploughing throughout the District. Sheep and goats are numerous, and the village of Gumnáyakanpálya is noted for a superior breed of the former animals. The wool, however, is of a coarse kind, only suited for native blankets. In 1880-81 the agricultural stock was as follows:—Horned cattle, 192,085; horses and ponies, 2442; asses, 7837; sheep and goats, 241,041; pigs, 1905; carts, 19,384; ploughs, 58,797.

The town of Kolár and the surrounding villages are celebrated for turkeys, which are exported in large numbers to the markets of Bangalore, Bellary, etc.

The prices of produce in 1880 were, per *maund* of 80 lbs., as follows:—Rice, 4s. 7d.; wheat, 9s. 7d.; cotton, £2, 13s. 4d.; sugar, £1, 17s. 7d.; salt, 7s. 1d.; gram, 7s. 10½d.; *rági*, 2s. 2d.; tobacco, £3, 7s. 3d.

Manufactures, etc.—The staple industry of the District arises out of the extensive cultivation of sugar-cane, and consists of the manufacture of refined sugar, jaggery, and molasses. The production of raw silk, a business confined to the Muhammadan class of the community, has greatly declined in recent years, owing to the continued mortality among the silkworms. The weaving of coarse cotton cloth and rough woollen blankets or *kamblís* is common throughout the District, as also are the making of common pottery and the pressing of oil. The returns show a total of 6960 looms and 379 oil-mills. In the mountainous *táluk* of Gumnáyakanpálya, iron-ore was once worked by native methods in considerable quantities, but the industry has died out since the famine.

The trade of the District is conducted at weekly markets and at large annual fairs. There are 7 market towns, where the average weekly attendance numbers over 1000. The principal fairs are those held at Nandi, attended by 50,000 persons; Avani, 40,000; Vánarási, 25,000: which are all important cattle fairs, besides having a religious character. It has not been observed that these large gatherings result in the propagation of any epidemic disease. Among exports from the District sugar holds the first place; the annual production is estimated at £78,060 worth of jaggery and refined sugar. Raw silk is manufactured to the value of £800; cotton, wool, and other fibres to the value of £12,972; oils to the value of £5176. Vegetables, betel-leaf, cotton cloth, and *ghí* are also produced in sufficient quantities to leave a surplus for other Districts. Almost the sole import received in return is European piece-goods, valued, but manifestly over-valued, at £1,466,000. The imports of salt are returned at £5700. The Bangalore branch of the south-west line of the Madras Railway runs for 31 miles across the south of the District, with stations at Kamasamudram, Bowringpet or Kolár Road, Taiakaland Malúr. The length of made roads in 1880–81 was 419 miles.

Administration.—In 1880–81, the total revenue of Kolár District, including forests, education, and public works, amounted to £96,941. The chief item was land revenue, £85,763. The District is subdivided into 10 *táluks* or fiscal divisions, with 81 *hoblis* or minor fiscal units. In 1870–71, the number of separate estates was 678, owned by 78,247 registered proprietors or coparceners.

During the year 1880–81, the average daily prison population of the District jail was 55, and of the *táluk* lock-ups 2—total, 57, of whom

2 were women, showing 1 person in jail to every 8089 of the population. Cost of District jail in 1880, £389; net cost per head of convicts, £6, 19s. 7d. In the same year, the District police force numbered 475 of all ranks, and the municipal police 3 officers and 15 men—total, 493 men of all ranks, maintained at an aggregate cost of £5624. These figures show 1 policeman to about 4 square miles of area, or to every 935 of the population, the cost being nearly 3d. per head of population. The number of schools aided and inspected by Government in 1874 was 233, attended by 5547 pupils, being 1 school to every 11·06 square miles and 8·9 pupils to every 1000 of the population. In addition there were 102 unaided schools, with 1494 pupils. In 1880-81, Government and aided schools numbered 155 for boys, with 4575 pupils, and 7 for girls, with 162 pupils. The London Missionary Society has a station at Chikballapur.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of Kolár closely resembles that of Bangalore, and shares in its general reputation for healthiness. The mean annual temperature is about 76° F. During the year 1880-81, the maximum recorded was 91° in the month of May, the minimum 65° in December. The average rainfall for the year is 30 inches, which chiefly falls during the months of September and October. In former times, Kolár town was periodically attacked by cholera and other epidemics, introduced by the crowds of pilgrims that annually passed through. But attention to sanitary precautions on the part of the municipal authorities, and the construction of the railway, have effectually checked this evil. A total of 7496 deaths, or 12·7 per thousand, were registered in 1880; but the actual mortality is no doubt much higher. In 1880, 25 people were killed by snake-bite. In the same year, 13,557 persons were vaccinated. There are 2 civil dispensaries in the District—at Kolár and Chikballapur—each affording relief to about 75 patients per day. During the year 1880, the dispensary at Kolár town was attended by 160 in-patients and 7329 out-patients. [For further information regarding Kolár, see the *Mysore and Coorg Gazetteer*, by Mr. Lewis Rice, vol. ii. pp. 82-138 (Bangalore, 1876); and also the *Census Report of Mysore* for 1881.]

Kolár.—*Táluk* in Kolár District, Mysore State. Area, 337 square miles. Population (1871) 71,493; (1881) 56,971, namely, 27,526 males and 29,445 females. Hindus number 52,248; Muhammadans, 4364; and Christians, 359. The Pálár river runs through the northern and eastern parts of Kolár *táluk;* the western side is occupied with the ranges of the Kolár and Vakkaleri hills. Well cultivated, including even the table-land on the Kolár hills. The old Bangalore-Madras road passes through Kolár. The *táluk* contains 1 criminal court and 8 police stations. Regular police, 78 men; village watch (*chaukidárs*), 148. Revenue (1883-84), £12,856.

Kolár.—Chief town of Kolár District, Mysore State; situated in lat. 13° 8′ 5″ N., and long. 78° 10′ 18″ E.; 43 miles east-north-east of Bangalore by road, but also connected with it by rail from the Kolár Road station at Bowringpet, 10 miles to the south. Population (1871) 9924; (1881) 11,172, namely, 5356 males and 5816 females. Hindus, 8165; Muhammadans, 2724; and Christians, 283. The town contains the usual District offices, school, dispensary, barracks, jail, etc. The chief building is the tomb of Fateh Muhammad Khán, the father of Haidar Alí (*see* KOLAR DISTRICT). The mulberry is cultivated for the rearing of silkworms. Turkeys are exported in large numbers to Bangalore, Bellary, and other places. Manufacture of *kamblís* or coarse blankets. Weekly fair.

Kolár (*Colair; Kolleru; Klugu; Kolair; Koller*).—Lake in Kistna and Godávari Districts, Madras Presidency. Lat. 16° 30′ to 16° 45′ N., long. 81° 5′ to 81° 27′ E. A curious stretch of fresh water, half lake, half swamp, sometimes covering more than 100 square miles in the monsoon. In the dry weather the area is much reduced, and many parts are merely mud. A few small streams feed it, and the Upputeru river is its only outlet. At no time is it very deep. It abounds in waterfowl, and is fairly stocked with fish. Lake Kolár contains numerous fertile islets called *lankás*, many of which are inhabited and highly cultivated. On the other hand, many of the smaller ones are submerged during floods. The origin of the unusual depression which forms the bed of the lake is unknown, but it was possibly the result of an earthquake. In very dry seasons the ruins of ancient villages are perceptible in the bed, and large quantities of charcoal and charred beams give support to the local tradition that this was the scene of a conflagration, which was extinguished by a great flood; the latter caused by volcanic subsidence.

Another hypothesis, common to the Kolár, and to the Chilká lake in Orissa, explains these sheets of fresh water as caused by the land-making activity of the great rivers, acting together with the monsoon, which blows up an intervening beach or bank of sand between any low-lying unfilled tract and the sea. The inner low-lying tract receives the surrounding drainage, and becomes a shallow lake. The Godávari and the Kistna have pushed out their deltas on either side, leaving the area of the lake still to be filled up. Its dimensions are still being gradually reduced by reclamation and embankments.

Two inscribed copper-plates of the early Pallava dynasty have been found in the Kolár lake. A legend runs that one of the Orissa kings had a fort at Kolleti Kota on one of the eastern islands of the lake, and that the enemy, probably Muhammadan, encamped at Chiguru Kota on the shores of the lake, whose waters prevented an attack on Kolleti Kota. At last a channel, the Upputeru, was excavated, and the lake waters drawn off into the sea. To ensure the success of

the assault that followed, the Orissa general is said to have sacrificed his daughter. And her name, Perantala Kanama, commemorates the point of attack to the present day.

Kole.—Town in the Karád Sub-division of Satára District, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 17° 14′ N., long. 74° 10′ E.; 31 miles south by east of Satára town. Population (1872) 5137; (1881) 1781.

Kolhán.—Tract of country forming a Government estate in Singbhúm District, Bengal. Area, 1905 square miles, with 883 villages, 31,640 houses, and a population (1872) of 150,904 persons; density of population, 79 persons per square mile; persons per village, 171; persons per house, 4·8. No separate Census of the Kolhán tract appears to have been taken in 1881.

The indigenous village system of the Kols, based upon a federal union of villages under a single divisional head-man, which is gradually dying out elsewhere in Chutiá Nágpur, still survives in this tract. A group of from 5 to 20 villages forms a *pirhi* or *pír*, each of which has its own *mundá* or village head, all of whom are subject to the authority of the *mánki* or divisional head-man, who exercises the functions of divisional collector of rents and of divisional police superintendent within the limits of his *pír*. Every *mundá* or village head is responsible for the payment of the revenue, and for the detection and arrest of criminals in his own village, to the *mánki* or divisional head of the *pír;* and this latter official is in his turn responsible to Government. For acting as revenue collectors, the *mánkis* receive a commission of one-tenth, and the *mundás* one-sixth, of the rent which passes through their hands. Besides these duties, the *mánkis* and *mundás*, each in his degree, have certain informal powers to decide village disputes and questions of tribal usage.

Kolhápur (or *Karavira; Karvir*).—Native State under the Kolhápur and Southern Maráthá Political Agency, Bombay Presidency. Kolhápur State is situated between 15° 58′ and 17° 11′ N. lat., and between 73° 45′ and 74° 24′ E. long. It is bounded on the north by the river Warna, which separates it from the British District of Satára; on the north-east by the river Kistna (Krishna), separating it from Sángli, Miráj, and Kurundwád; on the east and south by the District of Belgáum; and on the west by the Sahyádri mountains, which divide it from Sáwantwári on the south-west and Ratnágiri on the west. Kolhápur State comprises portions of the old Hindu divisions of Maháráshtra and Karnátak,—a distinction which is still marked in the language of the people, part of whom speak Maráthí, and the remainder Kánarese. It forms one of the Deccan group of Native States. Area, 2816 square miles; population (1881) 800,189 persons. Chief town and capital, KOLHAPUR.

Physical Aspects.—Stretching from the heart of the Sahyádri range

eastwards into the plain of the Deccan, Kolhápur includes tracts of country of widely different character and appearance. In the west, along the spurs of the main chain of the Sahyádri mountains, are situated wild and picturesque hill slopes and valleys, producing little but timber, and till lately covered with rich forests. The central belt, which is open and fertile in parts, is crossed by several lines of low hills running east and west at right angles to the main range. Farther east, the land becomes more open, and presents the unpicturesque uniformity of a well-cultivated and treeless plain, broken only by an occasional river. Among the western hills are perched the forts of Panhála, Vishalgarh, Bávra, Bhúdargarh, and Rangna, ancient strongholds of the Kolhápur chieftains. The State is watered by eight streams of considerable size; but though navigable during the rainy months by trading boats of 2 tons, none are so large that they cannot be forded in the hot season. The only lake of any importance is that of Rankála, near the town of Kolhápur. It has lately been improved at a considerable cost. Its circumference is about 3 miles, and its mean depth 33 feet.

The principal agricultural products of the State are rice, millet, sugar-cane, tobacco, cotton, safflower, and vegetables. Iron-ore of three varieties is found in the Kolhápur territory. It is most plentiful in Vishalgarh, Panhála, Bhúdargarh, and Kolhápur proper, near the main range of the Sahyádri Hills. In these places it is generally found near the surface, in laterite stone. Formerly the smelting of iron was an industry of some importance; but, owing to the cost of manual labour, the increased price of fuel, and the low rate of freights from England, the Kolhápur mineral cannot compete with that imported from Europe. Stone is the only other mineral product of the State. There are several good quarries, especially one in a place known as Jotibás Hill, with a fine grained basalt, that takes a polish like marble. Game abounds, and the rivers yield large quantities of fish.

History.—The members of the third branch of the Siláhára family, which was settled above the Western Gháts, possessed the territory lying round Kolhápur and in the north-west part of Belgáum District, from about the end of the 10th to early in the 13th century A.D. In 1213-14, the country passed to the Devgiri Yádava dynasty. The ancient Hindu dynasty was subverted by the Báhmani kings of the Deccan, and the country afterwards passed under the rule of Bijápur. Sivají obtained possession of the forts in 1659, which, though taken and retaken many times, finally remained with the Maráthás on the death of Aurangzeb.

The present Rájás of Kolhápur trace their descent from Rájá Rám, a younger son of Sivají the Great, the founder of the Maráthá power. After the death of Rájá Rám in 1700, his widow placed her

son Sivají in power at Kolhápur. But in 1707, when Sháhu, the son of Sambhájí, Sivají's elder son, was released from captivity, he claimed the sovereignty over all the possessions of his grandfather, and fixed his capital at SATARA. Between the two branches of the family disputes continued for several years, till in 1731 a treaty was concluded, under the terms of which the Kolhápur family agreed to yield precedence to Sháhu, and Sháhu recognised Kolhápur as an independent principality.

On the death of Rájá Rám's sons in 1760, the direct line of Sivaji became extinct; and a member of the family of the Bhonslas was adopted under the name of Sivají II. The prevalence of piracy from the Kolhápur port of Málwán compelled the Bombay Government to send expeditions against Kolhápur in 1765, and again in 1792, when the Rájá agreed to give compensation for the losses which British merchants had sustained since 1785, and to permit the establishment of factories at Málwán and Kolhápur. Internal dissensions and wars with the neighbouring States of Patwardháns, Sáwantwári, and Nipáni gradually weakened the power of Kolhápur. In 1811, a treaty was concluded with the British Government, by which, in return for the cession of certain forts, the Kolhápur chief was guaranteed against the attacks of foreign powers; while on his part he engaged to abstain from hostilities with other States, and to refer all disputes to the arbitration of the British Government.

During the war with the Peshwá in 1817, the Rájá of Kolhápur sided with the British. In reward, the tracts of Chikori and Manoli, formerly wrested from him by the chief of Nipáni, were restored to him. But these tracts did not remain long in the possession of the Rájá of Kolhápur; they were taken back from him by the British Government in 1829, as the then Rájá did not act in accordance with the treaty entered into by him. Sháhájí, *alias* Báwa Sáhib, who came to the throne in 1822, proved a quarrelsome and profligate ruler; and in consequence of his aggressions between 1822 and 1829, the British were three times obliged to move a force against him. On his death in 1838, a council of regency was formed to govern during the minority of Sivají III. Quarrels arose among the members of this council, and the consequent anarchy led to the appointment by the British Government of a minister of its own. The efforts, however, which he made to reform the administration gave rise to a general rebellion, which extended to the neighbouring State of Sáwantwári. After the suppression of this rising, all the forts were dismantled, and the system of hereditary garrisons was abolished. The military force of the State was disbanded, and replaced by a local corps.

In 1862, a treaty was concluded with Sivají III., who was bound

in all matters of importance to be guided by the advice of the British Government. In 1866, on his death-bed, Sivají was allowed to adopt a successor in his sister's son, Rájá Rám. In 1870, Rájá Rám proceeded on a tour in Europe, and, while on his return journey to India, died at Florence on the 30th November 1870.

Sivají Mahárájá Chhatrapati IV. succeeded Rájá Rám by adoption. He was invested with the Knighthood of the Order of the Star of India. In 1882 he became insane, and Government was compelled to appoint a Council of Regency, headed by the chief of Kágal as Regent. Sivaji IV. died on the 25th December 1883; and having no issue, was succeeded by adoption by Yeshwant Rao, *alias* Bába Sáhib, under the name of Sháhájí. He is the eldest son of the Regent, and a lad of about nine years of age.

The Rájá of Kolhápur holds a patent authorizing adoption, and the succession follows the rule of primogeniture. He is entitled to a salute of 19 guns, and is empowered to try his own subjects for capital offences, without permission from the Political Agent.

Population.—In 1872, the population of the State was returned at 804,103. According to the Census of 1881, it amounted to 800,189. There has thus been a decrease of 3914 in nine years. In 1881 the males numbered 410,647, females 389,542. The people are scattered through 5 towns and 1056 villages, and occupy 129,148 houses; unoccupied houses number 16,036. The density of population is ·284 persons per square mile; towns and villages per square mile, ·376; houses per square mile, 51·5; persons per house, 6.

Of the 1061 towns and villages in the State, 184 contain less than two hundred inhabitants; 382 between two and five hundred; 306 between five hundred and one thousand; 123 between one and two thousand; 34 between two and three thousand; 27 between three and five thousand; 4 between five and ten thousand; and 1 between twenty and fifty thousand. The five towns in Kolhápur State with a population above 5000 are — KARVIR (38,599); INCHALKARANJI (9107); SHIROL (6944); KAGAL (6371); and GADH HINGLAJ (5002).

The male population is thus distributed as regards occupation—(1) Professional class, including officials and the learned professions, 18,884; (2) domestic servants, inn and lodging-house keepers, 4184; (3) commercial class, including bankers, merchants, carriers, etc., 3748; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, including shepherds, 289,253; (5) industrial class, including all manufacturers and artisans, 37,182; and (6) indefinite and non-productive class, comprising general labourers, male children, and persons of unspecified occupation, 57,396.

Classified according to religion, there are—Hindus, 719,164, or more than 89 per cent. of the whole population; Muhammadans, 33,022; Christians, 1253; Jains, 46,732; Pársí, 1; Buddhists, 12; and

Jews, 5. Among Hindus, Bráhmans number 29,446; Rájputs, 1500; Berads, 5277; Dhangars, 38,326; Kumbhárs.(potters), 8509; Lingáyats (mostly traders), 72,391; Mahars (inferior caste), 65,314; Chamárs, 10,219; Kunbís, 362,158; Mangs, 13,323; Sutárs, 11,451; Koshtí, 5924; Nápits, 7476; Darjís, 5666; Dhobís, 5208. The Muhammadans are thus sub-divided—Shaikhs, 25,984; Sayyids, 4104; Patháns, 2186; and unspecified, 748.

Trade, etc.—The principal manufactures are pottery, hardware, coarse cotton, woollen cloth, felt, paper, liquor, perfumes, and lac and glass ornaments. Coarse sugar, tobacco, cotton, and grain are the chief exports; and sugar, spices, cocoa-nuts, piece-goods, silk, salt, and sulphur are the principal imports. The most noteworthy centres of local trade with permanent markets are Kolhápur town, Shirol, Wadgáon, Alta, Inchalkaranjí, Kágal, and Malkápur. Six principal lines of road pass through Kolhápur territory, the most important being that from Poona to Belgáum, which crosses the State from north to south.

Revenue, Administration, etc.—There are thirteen more or less important estates, including the four feudatories of the Kolhápur Ráj, viz. Vishalgarh, Bávra, Kágal, Inchalkaranjí, Jagatguru, Guru Mahárráj, Torgal, Kapsi, Dáttáji Ráo, Datwad, Himat Bahádur, Sir Lashkar, and Patankar; their chiefs pay a *nazar* or tribute to Kolhápur on succession, and also usually an annual contribution. Accounts of them will be found under their respective names; the principal are VISHALGARH, BAVRA, KAGAL, and INCHALKARANJI. The gross annual revenue of Kolhápur State in 1882–83 was £221,976. The actual income of the chief is given at £167,400. He maintains a military force of 1684 men. Exclusive of a few missionary institutions, there are (1882) in all 174 schools. There is also a Provincial College, which was organized in 1880. The total number of pupils on the rolls is returned at 10,419. There is a native library, a local newspaper, and 11 reading rooms established in the State. The cost of education in 1882–83 was £8100. Seven petty chiefs attend the Rájkumár class of the Rájárám College. The Forest Department cleared a profit of £1765 in 1882. There are municipalities at Kolhápur, Narsobáchi Vádi, Inchalkaranji, and Kágal. Strength of police, 646 men, maintained at a cost of £6637. In 1882–83, 3806 persons were brought before the 38 magisterial courts of the State. The central jail at Kolhápur has an average daily population of 164; cost per prisoner, £9, 12s. There are 13 subordinate jails. The telegraph and postal systems are maintained by the British Government.

Climate and Medical Aspects.—At an elevation of about 1800 feet above the sea, Kolhápur enjoys on the whole a temperate climate. In the west, with its heavy rainfall and timber-covered hills and valleys,

the air keeps cool throughout the year; but in the plain dry tracts beyond the hills, suffocating easterly winds prevail from April to June. During the hot weather months, the hill forts, rising about 1000 feet above the plain, afford a pleasant retreat. The ordinary forms of sickness are fevers, diarrhœa, cholera, dysentery, and small-pox. A State medical service has been organized. In 1882, the registered death-rate was 23 per 1000, and the birth-rate 33 per 1000.

Kolhápur (or *Kollápura*, *Karavira*, or *Karvir*).—Capital of Kolhápur State, Bombay Presidency, and residence of the chief; situated in lat. 16° 42′ N., and long. 74° 16′ E., opposite a gap in the Sahyádri Hills; 144 miles south by east from Poona, and 76 from Satára. Population (1872) 37,663; (1881) 38,599, namely, 19,335 males and 19,264 females. Hindus numbered 33,583; Muhammadans, 3734; Jains, 1107; Christians, 164; Pársí, 1; and 'others,' 10.

A picturesque native capital, thronged by traders from many parts, each in his national habit. Much has recently been done to improve the sanitation of the town, and to adorn it with handsome edifices. Some of the new public buildings of Kolhápur challenge comparison with the most successful efforts of modern Indian architecture. The income of the municipality in 1882–83 was £4579.

Kolhápur has long been held in high esteem for the antiquity of its sacred shrines; and all current legends state that the present capital originally existed as a purely religious settlement, of which the great temple dedicated to the goddess Mahálakshmi remains to mark the site. The cloisters, which formerly surrounded this great temple, now lie buried many feet under the surface of the earth, which appears to have undergone at no distant period a serious convulsion. The extreme antiquity of Kolhápur is borne out by the numerous Buddhist remains that have been discovered in the immediate neighbourhood, and notably by a crystal relic casket found in a large *stupa*, about 1880, bearing on its lid an inscription in Asoka characters of the 3rd century B.C. Small temples are frequently brought to light by excavations. It is believed that Karavira is the older and more important capital of the State, and that the transfer of the political capital, from Karavira to the originally religious settlement of Kolhápur, was probably necessitated by some convulsion of nature of which there are so many evidences in the neighbourhood of Kolhápur. The ancient Karavira is now a petty village on the north side of the present town of Kolhápur.

Kolikodu.—Town in Malabár District, Madras Presidency.—*See* CALICUT.

Kolkai (or *Korkai*).—Village in Tenkarái *táluk*, Tinnevelli District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 8° 40′ N., long. 78° 6′ E. Population (1881) 2386. Number of houses, 677. Hindus numbered 2125;

Christians, 250; and Muhammadans, 11. Now an inland town, but once a seaport at the mouth of the Tambraparni river, and the earliest seat of South Indian civilisation, where (according to tradition) the brothers Chera, Chola, and Pandya dwelt together before founding the three kingdoms that bore their respective names. Κόλκοι ἐμπόριον is mentioned by Ptolemy; and in the Periplus as the seat of King Pandya's pearl-fishery. It is referred to in the Peutinger Tables as 'Colcis Indorum,' and gave its name to the Colchic Gulf, now known as Manaar. The silt of the Tambraparni river has spread seaward, so that this once celebrated port is at present 5 miles from the coast. Káyal (*Kail*, *Koil*), where Marco Polo stopped for a time, succeeded Kolkai as the port of Madúra; but it also has been left 2 miles inland by the sea, and the insignificant village of Palayakáyal has been identified as the site of this once important city and seaport. The present Káyalpatam (*q.v.*) succeeded Káyal as the port of Madúra.

Kolladam.—The northern mouth of the Káverí (Cauvery) river, Madras Presidency.—*See* COLEROON.

Kollamallai.—Mountain range in Salem District, Madras Presidency; lying in the Atúr and Námakal *táluks*. Lat. 11° 10′ 30″ to 11° 28′ N., and long. 78° 20′ 30″ to 78° 31′ 30″ E. Estimated area, 180 square miles; 13 *náds* or hill-divisions, with 3023 houses and (1881) 10,965 inhabitants. General elevation from 2500 to 3500 feet; highest point in the range, 4663 feet above sea-level. The population includes a number of Malayálís, or hillmen of the same race as those described in the article on the SHEVAROY HILLS. The Kotás, a tribe characteristic of the Nílgiris, have a tradition that the Kollamallai Hills are the cradle of the race. The Kollamallais are cultivated in many parts, and furnish the surrounding country with forest produce—sandal-wood, black-wood, and other valuable timbers, firewood, and charcoal. They bear an evil reputation at certain seasons for malarious fever of a deadly type.

Kollér (or *Kolleru*).—Lake in Kistna and Godávari Districts, Madras Presidency.—*See* KOLAR.

Kollúr.—*Ghát* or pass in South Kánara District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 13° 52′ to 13° 53′ 20″ N., and long. 74° 53′ to 74° 54′ E. One of the principal passes in the Western Gháts, connecting the plateau of Mysore and Coorg with the low plains of Kánara.

Kolong.—Village in Kángra District, Punjab.—*See* KOLANG.

Kombái.—Town in Peryakulam *táluk*, Madúra District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 9° 51′ 30″ N., long. 77° 17′ E. Population (1871) 8708; (1881) 5792. Number of houses, 1523. Hindus numbered 5192; Christians, 384; and Muhammadans, 216. Kombái was one of the 72 'Pálaiyams' of Madúra.

Komorin.—Cape in Travancore State, Madras Presidency.—*See* COMORIN.

Komulmair. — Pass in Udaipur (Oodeypore) State, Rájputána. Lat. 25° 9′ N., long. 73° 40′ E.; 50 miles north of Udaipur city, and 90 south-east of Jodhpur. The pass runs through a series of rugged ravines in the Aravalli range, and is defended by a fortress, which was acquired in 1818 by the East India Company. Elevation above sea-level, 8353 feet.

Konch.—*Tahsíl* and town in Jaláun District, North-Western Provinces.—*See* KUNCH.

Kondapallí. — Town and hill fortress in Bezwáda *táluk*, Kistna District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 16° 37′ 59″ N., long. 80° 34′ 17″ E. Population (1871) 5207; (1881) 4289. Number of houses, 973. Hindus numbered 3391, and Muhammadans 8981. Now unimportant, but formerly a fortress of some strength, giving its name to a Province known to the Musalmáns as Mustáfanagar or Mustáfábád. It was in fact the capital of one of the 5 Northern Circars, and was a frequently contested point for two and a half centuries. The hill fort was constructed, *circ.* 1360, by the Reddís of Kondavír. It was taken by the Báhmani king, Muhammad Sháh II., in 1471, from the Orissa Rájás, and in 1477 from a revolted garrison. Falling again into the hands of the Orissa Rájás, it was taken by Krishna Ráya *circ.* 1515, and by Sultán Kuli Kutab Sháh in 1521. It surrendered to the troops of the Emperor Aurangzeb in 1687, and on March 10, 1766, was taken by assault, by General Caillaud, from the Nizám. The old enclosure of the walled city is now chiefly occupied by corn-fields, but the ruins of the citadel remain on the overhanging hill. A small British garrison was stationed here till January 1859. The barracks have been converted into a public bungalow. At Kondapallí there is a special local industry, the manufacture of small figures and toys from a very light wood (Gyrocarpus Jacquini), which grows on the hills in its neighbourhood.

Kondavír (*Condaveed; Kondavídu; Kondhir; Kondaver*—Hamilton).—Town and fort in Narsaraopet *táluk*, Kistna District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 16° 15′ 15″ N., long. 80° 17′ 25″ E. Population (1881) 1746. Number of houses, 418. Hindus numbered 1533; Muhammadans, 124; and Christians, 4.

Once the capital of a Province of the same name, extending from the Kistna to the Gundlakamma (Orme). Constructed in the 12th century by the Orissa Rájás, the hill fortress above the town of Kondavír, on a ridge running in a north-east and south-west direction for 9½ miles, was the seat of the Reddí dynasty (1328–1428), was taken by Krishna Ráya about 1516, and by Sultán Kuli Kutab Sháh of Golconda in 1531, 1536, and 1579. It was termed Murtizanagar by the Muhammadans.

The French obtained the Province in 1752, and in 1757 starved out a garrison of local insurgents. Kondavír was made over to the English Company in 1788.

The highest point of the hill is 1701 feet above sea-level. The village situated at the western foot of the central ridge, 5 furlongs north-east of the fort. The old town of Kondavír was to the east of the village, in the triangular valley between the ridges. The fort, 1050 feet (described by Mr. Boswell in the *Indian Antiquary*, vol. i. p. 182), is of large extent even now, and many parts of it, including granaries, palace, etc., are in good repair. There are one or two European bungalows here, and the place was for a time used as a sanitarium by the officers of Guntúr. The only industry worth notice is the extraction of essences and fragrant oils from jasmine and other plants, which are sent to Haidarábád for sale.

Kondayapollam.—Town in Udayagiri *táluk*, Nellore District, Madras Presidency. Population (1881) 3885; houses, 930. Hindus numbered 2762, and Muhammadans 1123.

Kondká (*Chhuikadán*).—Petty State attached to Ráipur District, Central Provinces; lying at the foot of the Sáletekri Hill, and dating from 1750 A.D. Area, 174 square miles; number of villages, 109; number of houses, 9669. Total population (1881) 32,979, namely, males 16,267, and females 16,712; average density of population, 189·5 persons per square mile. The area in the plains, which is fertile and well cultivated, comprises 101 villages; the largest of which contains 400 huts or houses, with over 1000 inhabitants. Chief products, wheat, gram, cotton, etc. The chief resides in a substantial stone building, standing in a fortified square. He is a Bairágí, but belongs to a sect among which marriage is permitted. He pays to the British Government a yearly tribute of £1100. His estimated annual income is £2203.

Kongnoli.—Town in the Chikori Sub-division of Belgáum District, Bombay Presidency. Situated in lat. 16° 32′ 30″ N., and long. 74° 24′ E., 4 miles north of Sadalgi, and 22 miles north-west of Chikori on the Belgáum-Kolhápur road, in the extreme north-west corner of Belgáum District. The town has a large trade, sending rice to Belgáum and various places in Kolhápur, and importing cloth, date, salt, spices, and sugar, through the ports of Rájápur and Vengurla in Ratnágiri District. Weekly market on Thursday, when cotton, yarn, grain, molasses, tobacco, and from 2000 to 3000 cattle form the chief articles of trade. Weaving of women's robes, waistcloths, and inferior blankets are the only industries. Travellers' bungalow, rest-house, post-office, and two Government schools, one for boys and the other for girls. Paper for packing purposes and for envelopes was manufactured to a large extent before the famine of 1876–77, but during the famine the paper-makers deserted the town. Population (1872) 5143; (1881) 5061.

Konkair.—Town in Nágpur District, Central Provinces.—*See* KAKAIR.

Konkan.—A name applied to the Maráthí-speaking lowland strip along the southern portion of the Bombay Presidency, situated between the Western Gháts and the sea. The term has no very distinct administrative signification, and its former geographical limits have become less strictly defined than of old. The coast strip, to which the word is now applied, is a fertile and generally level tract, varying from 1 or 2 to about 50 miles in breadth between the sea and the mountains, with an area of about 12,500 square miles, and, approximately, a population of 3,800,000. It is watered by hill streams, and at parts intersected by tidal backwaters, but has nowhere any great rivers. A luxuriant vegetation of palms rises along the coast, the cocoa-nut plantations forming an important source of wealth to the villagers. Splendid forests cover the Gháts on its eastern boundary. The crops are abundant; and owing to the monsoon rainfall being precipitated upon the Gháts behind, the Konkan is peculiarly exempt from drought and famine. The common language of the Konkan is Maráthí. Kánarese is spoken in the southern part, and a little Gujaráthí in the north of Thána.

In a geographical sense, the Konkan forms one of the five territorial Divisions of the Bombay Presidency, the others being the Deccan, the Karnátik, Gujarát, and Sind. It includes the town and island of Bombay, the three British Districts of Ratnágiri, Kolába, and Thána, the three Native States of Jawhár, Janjira, and Sáwantwári, and the Portuguese territory of Goa, all of which see separately.

	Area in Square Miles.	Population (Census of 1881).
Ratnágiri District	3,922	997,090
Kolába "	1,496	381,649
Thána "	4,243	908,548
Bombay City and Island	22	773,196
Jawhár State	534	48,556
Janjira "	325	76,361
Sáwantwári "	900	174,433
Goa Territory	1,062	445,449
Total	12,504	3,805,282

The Konkan is bounded by Gujarát on the north, by the Deccan on the east, by North Kánara District on the south, and by the Arabian Sea on the west.

The history of the Konkan will best be gathered from a perusal of the historical portions of the separate articles on the included States and Districts. The earliest dynasty connected with the Konkan is that of the Mauryas, who reigned about three centuries before Christ; but the evidence of the connection rests altogether on

an Asoka inscription discovered at the town of Sopára in Thána District. The dynasties that succeeded were the following, in their order, so far as order is ascertainable:—The Shátákarnis or Andrabhrityás, with their capital at Paitan in the Deccan; the Mauryas, descendants of the elder house; the Chálukyas; the Siláháras, whose capital was perhaps the island of Elephanta in Bombay Harbour; the Yadavas, with their capital at Deogiri, the modern Daulátábád; the Muhammadans (Khiljís, Báhmanis, Bijápur chiefs, Mughals, and Ahmadábád kings); Portuguese commanders (over a limited area); Maráthás; and British.

The principal incidents in the annals of the Konkan are of modern interest. The Konkan coast was known to the peoples of Greece and Rome, and both Ptolemy (150 A.D.) and the author of the Periplus (247 A.D.) afford evidence that Greek traders from Egypt dealt with the Konkan ports. Many of these last are named by the Greek geographers; and while the modern representative of the ancient town has been in many instances identified, in others the ingenuity of conjecture is still employed. To take one or two examples, it is yet a matter of uncertainty whether Byzantium is the Konkan pirate fort of Vijayadrúg; whether the word Chersonesus refers to Goa, or whether the term Heptanesia relates to the islands that stud the modern harbour of Bombay.

The arrival of the Beni-Israel and the Pársís from the Persian Gulf and Persia are important incidents in Konkan history. The Beni-Israel, whom high authority has not hesitated to call the descendants of the lost tribes of Israel, are found all over Bombay Presidency. The descendants of the first Pársís, who landed in Thána about the 7th century, now crowd the streets and markets of Bombay, engross a large part of the city's wealth and principal trading operations, and have their agents in all important provincial towns.

The Portuguese reached Malabar in 1498, and fixed the head-quarters of their naval dominion at Cheul or Chaul. In 1510, Goa was seized, and from this time until 1630 the Portuguese shared the rule of the Konkan with the Muhammadan kings of Ahmadnagar and Bijápur. The rise and fall of the pirate power of the Angriás, who fixed themselves in the island strongholds of Kolába, Suvarndrúg, and Gheria or Vijayadrúg, and from 1700 to 1756 harassed English, Dutch, and native shipping alike, mark a disastrous period of Konkan history.

Since the British administration was set up in 1818 on the overthrow of the Maráthás, the peace of the whole area, if some disturbances in Sáwantwári in 1844 and 1850 be excepted, has remained unbroken.

The great city and harbour of Bombay are situated about one-third down the length of the Konkan from the north. The Portuguese territory of Goa used to form its southern limit; but the District of North

Kánara has been transferred from Madras to the Bombay Presidency, and now constitutes the southernmost District of the Division known as the Konkan.

Physical Aspects, Natural History, and Geology.—The following paragraphs have been condensed from a short monograph on the physical features of the Konkan, by Major J. H. Lloyd:—Approaching the coast of the Konkan from seaward, the traveller sees before him a wild-looking country consisting of a confused mass of hills, exhibiting every shade of brown, red, and purple; in some parts coming down to the sea, in others receding and giving space along the shore for tracts of rice cultivation, or belts of cocoa-nut and palm. In the foreground the sea beating on the rocks sets off the picture with a fringe of surf, interrupted at intervals where the coast-line is broken by the mouths of creeks and rivers, and far in the background the eye rests on the line of Gháts, blocking the distant horizon with a long succession of peaks, bluffs, and domes—cool and grey in the morning, misty and indistinct under the glare of noonday, and glowing with pink and violet as the great trap precipices catch the rays of the setting sun. As regards its geology, the Konkan is a country, broadly speaking, of stratified primary rocks. The hills are composed of layers of trap varying in composition, and capped by a stratum of laterite, while the alluvial soil of the valleys is the result of the disintegration and decomposition of these rocks carried down by drainage from the hills.

On the shores of the salt marshes, locally known as *Khár*, and along the tidal portion of the rivers which empty themselves into the Arabian Sea, the soil is a stiff blue clay which, when reclaimed from the action of the sea, is capable of being converted into rice land of considerable value. The narrow strip of sand along the coast rests on what geologists term littoral concrete, which bears the various species of the palm tree, date, and palmyra in the north, cocoa-nut and areca-nut in the south. The annual rainfall of the Konkan is estimated at over 100 inches; and this rainfall added to the enormous body of water thrown off the face of the Western Gháts during the monsoon, the whole traversing the region to the sea, accounts for the numerous rivers and streams in which the Konkan abounds. The general level of the country presents throughout the dry months of the year a parched and barren appearance; but this air of sterility is modified as higher ground is reached.

In the open cultivated tracts are sun-baked rice-fields, bare hill-sides, dried-up streams, and occasional groves with their denizens of kites, cattle egrets, noisy koels, and active squirrels. In the lower ground are found forests of teak (Tectona grandis), *ain* (Terminalia tomentosa), *kinjal* (Terminalia paniculata), *pángárá* (Erythrina indica),

and *simul* (Bombax malabaricum); among what scanty foliage there is, the woodpecker, the babbler, and the coppersmith keep up a din of confusing notes. On the higher slopes, the *kokamb* (Garcinia indica), *sissú* (Dalbergia latifolia), and wild plantain spread over the hills, and afford shelter to the green pigeon, green barbet, and bronze-winged doves. On the highest ranges, in the shade of evergreen forests of Rán-Jámbul (Eugenia Jambolana), *punschi* (Carallia integerrima), and many others, ferns and mosses adorn the surface of the ground; strange forms of plant and insect life continually demand the naturalist's attention; while the notes of the thrush, blackbird, and *ghát* bulbul musically salute his ears.

Konnagar.—Village in Húglí District, Bengal; situated on the right bank of the Húglí river. Lat. 22° 42′ N., long. 88° 23′ E. Inhabited by a large Bráhman community, but not otherwise of any importance. Station on the East Indian Railway, 9 miles from the Howrah terminus.

Koosee.—River in Purniah District, Bengal.—*See* KUSI.

Kooshtea.—Sub-division and town in Nadiyá District, Bengal.—*See* KUSHTIA.

Kopaganj.—Town in Muhammadábád *tahsíl*, Azamgarh District, North-Western Provinces; situated in lat. 26° 0′ 40″ N., and long. 83° 36′ 35″ E., on the Gorakhpur and Gh. ázipur road. Population (1872) 6633; (1881) 6301, namely, Hindus, 3616; and Muhammadans, 2685. Area of town site, 147 acres. For police and conservancy purposes, a house-tax is levied, yielding an income of £103 in 1881. Founded about the year 1745 by Irádat Khán, Rájá of Azamgarh. Country cloth is woven. Exports of sugar and grain; imports of piece-goods, metal, and manufactured wares. The trade, however, is small, and the town is not now of any note. Retail markets twice a week. Police outpost station; post-office.

Kopárgáon.—Sub-division of Ahmadnagar District, Bombay Presidency. Area, 511 square miles; containing 121 villages, and 8956 houses. Population (1872) 66,739; (1881) 63,789, namely, 32,530 males and 31,259 females. In 1881, Hindus numbered 56,472; Muhammadans, 2695; and 'others,' 4622.

Kopárgáon is the most northerly Sub-division of the District, and was formed in 1861–62 by splitting up the old Sub-division of Pátoda, which was found too large and unwieldy for administrative purposes. About half the villages now forming Kopárgáon belonged to Pátoda, and to these were added villages all along the south. The river Godávari enters at the extreme north-west corner, traverses the Sub-division, and forms for a short distance the eastern boundary. The bed of the river is considerably below the general level of the country, and the high black soil and clay banks are deeply fissured by the numerous minor streams

which drain the Sub-division. Kopárgáon consists of a black-soil plain, having a gentle slope from both sides towards the Godávari. In most of the villages the people are dependent on wells for their water-supply, as all but the largest tributaries of the Godávari run dry shortly after the monsoon rains have ceased. The cultivators of Kopárgáon are in an impoverished condition, attributable in a great measure to the frequent occurrence of bad seasons. Sudden and violent showers, which deluge the country, are often succeeded by a long and continued drought. Out of the eleven years ending 1884, six have been seasons of partial or absolute famine.

Kopárgáon until recently possessed only one made road, the old military route from Ahmadnagar to Málegaon, now maintained from Provincial Funds; but it enjoys the advantage of numerous fair-weather tracks. The Dhond-Manmár State Railway traverses the Sub-division from south to north, with stations at Belápur, Chitali, Puntámba, Sanwatsár, and Kopárgáon Road. The export of grain from the Puntámba station in 1880 amounted to 1175 tons.

Of a total area of 511 square miles, 509 have been surveyed in detail. Of these, 4283 acres are the lands of alienated villages. The rest includes 290,874 acres of cultivable land; 17,588 acres of uncultivable land; 269 acres under grass; 2988 acres of forest reserves; and 10,116 acres of village sites, roads, and river-beds. Of the 290,874 acres of cultivable land, 21,636 acres are alienated lands in Government villages. Of 269,238 acres (the actual area of Government cultivable land), 254,274 acres were in 1882–83 held for tillage. Of these, 244,979 acres were under dry crops, and 9295 acres were watered garden land. Of 198,982 acres, the actual area under cultivation in 1881–82, grain crops occupied 186,399 acres; pulses, 9528 acres; oil-seeds, 506 acres; fibres, 80 acres; and miscellaneous crops, 2469 acres.

The Sub-division contains 2 civil and 3 criminal courts. There is a police station (*thánd*); regular police, 30 men; village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 162. Six weekly markets; 21 village schools for boys and 2 for girls.

Kopárgáon.—Village in Kopárgáon Sub-division, Ahmadnagar District, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 19° 54′ N., long. 74° 33′ E. The head-quarters of the Sub-division, 60 miles north of Ahmadnagar city, on the north bank of the Godávari river. Kopárgáon was the favourite residence of Rághuba, the father of Báji Ráo, the last Peshwá. His palace is now used as the sub-divisional office. Population (1881) 2020. In 1804, Bálájí Lakshman, the Peshwá's governor of Khándesh, inveigled 7000 Bhíls into his power at Kopárgáon, and threw most of them into two wells. In 1818, on the final overthrow of the Peshwá's power, Kopárgáon was occupied by Madras troops. Subordinate judge's court, and a weekly market held on Monday. The Kopárgáon Road station on the Dhond-Manmár State Railway is two miles from the village.

Kopilás.—Hill in Dhenkánal State, Orissa. Lat. 20° 40′ 40″ N., long. 85° 48′ 53″ E.; height, 2098 feet. The hill takes its name from a temple situated near its summit, which in February of every year is visited by about 10,000 pilgrims, on which occasion a large fair is held, and considerable trade carried on. At the top of the hill is a table-land, which might be made a pleasant place of residence during the hot months.

Kopili.—River of Assam.—*See* KAPILI.

Koppa.—*Táluk* in Kadúr District, Mysore State. Area, 503 square miles, of which only 75 are cultivated. Population (1872) 35,799; (1881) 40,287, namely, 23,112 males and 17,175 females. In 1881, Hindus numbered 39,023; Muhammadans, 978; and Christians, 286. Revenue (1883-84), exclusive of water rates, £24,760, or 10s. per cultivated acre. The Koppa *táluk* is entirely Malnád, or high land. It contains the sources of the Tunga river, and the sacred site of Sringeri, founded in the 8th century by the Sivaite apostle Sankaráchárya. Country clothed with the finest forest. Products—coffee, extensively cultivated in the hill ranges to the north, and on the slopes of the Western Gháts; rice, areca-nut, and cardamoms. The *táluk* contains 2 criminal courts and 7 police stations (*thánás*); regular police, 58 men; village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 10. The head-quarters of the *táluk* are at the village of HARIHARPUR.

Koppa.—Village in the *táluk* of the same name in Kadúr District, Mysore State. Lat. 13° 32′ 4″ N., long. 75° 21′ 51″ E. Situated about two miles to the east of Hariharpur.

Kora (*Corah*).—Western *tahsíl* or Sub-division of Fatehpur District, North-Western Provinces; lying along the northern bank of the Jumna, and consisting of a cultivable plain, intersected by jungle-clad ravines. The *tahsíl* is divided into three portions by the rivers Rind and Nún, which pass through it from west to south-east. In the northern and central tract there is well-irrigation, but the southern tract is generally unirrigated. The irrigation is entirely from wells and tanks, the rivers not being used at all for that purpose. The most important soils are —irrigated *dúmat*, covering 22 per cent., and unirrigated *dúmat*, which extends over about 30 per cent. of the cultivated area. About 13 per cent. of the area under cultivation consists of *sígon*. The *rabí*, or spring crops, which occupy about two-thirds of the cultivated area, consist chiefly of *birra*, wheat, and gram; and the autumn crops of *joár*, *bájra*, and cotton.

The area of the *tahsíl*, according to the latest official statement (1881), was 230 square miles, of which 132 square miles were cultivated; 35·4 square miles cultivable; and 62·1 square miles uncultivable waste. The area paying Government revenue or quit-rent was 229·4 square miles, of which 132·1 square miles were cultivated. Government land revenue,

£19,231; total Government revenue, including rates and cesses, £22,613; rental paid by cultivators, £32,618. Population (1872) 91,207; (1881) 81,164, namely, males 40,898, and females 40,266, showing a decrease of 10,043, or 11 per cent. in the nine years since 1872. Classified according to religion, there were, in 1881—Hindus, 75,486; Muhammadans, 5620; and Jains, 58. Of the 217 villages comprising the *tahsíl*, 152 had less than five hundred inhabitants. Kora is well supplied with roads, and a metalled road connects it with the Mauhár station on the East Indian Railway. In 1884, the Sub-division contained 1 criminal court, 3 police circles (*thánás*), with a regular police of 32 men, and a village watch of 165 *chaukídárs*.

Kora (*Corah*).—Town in Fatehpur District, North-Western Provinces, and head-quarters of Kora *tahsíl*. Lat. 26° 6′ 35″ N., long. 80° 24′ 20″ E. Situated on the old Mughal road from Agra to Allahábád. Capital of a *subah* under the Mughal Empire, and still retaining many architectural relics of its former magnificence. Amongst them the most noticeable are—the Báradári of Ráo Lál Bahádur, a large enclosed garden with two pleasure-houses, built towards the close of the last century, under the Oudh Wazírs; the Sorahi or mausoleum, a mile west of Jahánábád; the *sarái* or travellers' halting-place in Jahánábád, with handsome old walls and gates; and a magnificent tank of great size and depth, still retaining a constant supply of clear water. The old fort is now used as the *tahsíli*, and contains the Government courts and offices. The Thákurdwára, opposite the Báradári, is a modern building of some interest.

Population (1881) 2650, namely, males 1198, and females 1452. The two towns of Kora and Jahánábád are situated on opposite sides of the road, and are known as one under the name of Kora-Jahánábád, although they are separately administered under Act xx. of 1856. Kora was formerly the seat of considerable trade; but lying as it does on the Mughal imperial highway, away from the modern Grand Trunk Road and Railway, much of its business has been diverted to other places more favourably situated. It is, however, still a market for agricultural produce, and copper and bell-metal vessels are manufactured in some quantity. The town contains many old and substantially built houses, mostly, however, in a ruined state.

Korá (or *Káro*).—Hill in Bánkurá District, Bengal; on the east of the provincial road from Ráníganj to Bánkurá. An elongated hill, from 350 to 400 feet high, rising precipitously from the plain on the west, north, and south, but from the east by a very gentle and long ascent.

Korábága. — *Zamíndárí* estate in Sambalpur *tahsíl*, Sambalpur District, Central Provinces; 30 miles north-west of Sambalpur town. Population (1881) 4154, namely, males 2060, and females 2094; chiefly agriculturists, residing in 27 villages, on an area of 20 square miles, half

of which is covered with jungle. Chief product, rice. Korábága, the largest village, with a population in 1881 of 377, contains a school. It is situated in lat. 21° 45′ 30″ N., and long. 83° 42′ 30″ E.

Korabár.—Town in the Native State of Udaipur, Mewár Agency, Rájputána. Situated about 20 miles south-west of Udaipur city, and the residence of a first-class noble of the State, who owns 53 villages. The town gives its name to his estate.

Korácha.—*Zamíndárí* estate in Bráhmapurí *tahsíl*, on the eastern border of Chándá District, Central Provinces. Comprising an area of 204 square miles and 52 villages, the largest being Mánpur; population (1881) 2916. Through this place numerous Chhatísgarh Banjárás pass to and from the eastern coast with grain.

Korangi.—Town in Godávari District, Madras.—*See* CORINGA.

Korári Kalán.—Town in Unao District, Oudh. Lat. 26° 27′ N., long. 80° 35′ E.; 16 miles south-west of Mohan, and 10 north-west of Unao town; 4 miles distant from Rasúlábád. Peopled about 1100 years ago by a Kunwár of the Bhar tribe. Six centuries later it passed into the possession of Iswári Singh and Bisrám Singh, Chauhán *thákurs* of Máinpurí, who exterminated the Bhars, and whose descendants still possess the land. Population (1881) 2079, namely, 2008 Hindus and 71 Muhammadans. Two Sivaite temples.

Koratagiri (*Kortágiri*).—*Táluk* in Túmkúr District, Mysore State. Area, 383 square miles, of which 81 are cultivated. Population (1871) 73,933; (1881) 43,423, namely, 21,731 males and 21,692 females; Hindus numbered 41,833; Muhammadans, 1234; and Jains, 356. Land revenue (1881–82), exclusive of water rates, £6235, or 2s. 4d. per cultivated acre. Soil favourable both for crops and cattle. Iron is smelted from the black sand brought by streams from the rocks. The hills around Koratagiri are clothed with good fuel jungle.

Koratagiri (*Kortágiri*).—Village in Túmkúr District, Mysore State, on the left bank of the Suvarnamukhi river, in lat. 13° 31′ 30″ N., and long. 77° 16′ 20″ E.; 16 miles by road north of Túmkúr town. Population (1881) 2016. Fort, founded by a local chieftain, was dismantled by Tipú Sultán. Glass bangles and silk are manufactured. Head-quarters of Koratagiri *táluk*.

Korba.—*Zamíndárí* estate in the north of Biláspur District, Central Provinces, with a scattered population (1881) of 42,122 persons, namely, males 21,276, and females 20,846, residing in 316 villages, on an area of 823 square miles; comprising both hill and plain. The chief village, Korba, is situated on the river Hasdú, 48 miles east of Bilászpur town, in lat. 22° 21′ N., and long. 82° 45′ E. Though wild and poorly cultivated, the estate possesses timber and coal, and with better communications would be valuable. At present it exports *tasár* silk. The chief is a Kunwár.

Koreá.—Native State of Chutiá Nágpur, Bengal, lying between 22° 55′ 50″ and 23° 49′ 15″ N. lat., and between 81° 58′ 15″ and 82° 48′ 15″ E. long. Bounded on the north by Rewá State; on the east by Sargujá; on the south by Biláspur District in the Central Provinces; and on the west by Cháng Bhukár and Rewá. Koreá consists of an elevated table-land of coarse sandstone overlying the coal measures, from which spring several abruptly scarped plateaux, varying in height, and irregularly distributed over the surface. To the east is the Sonhát plateau, with an elevation of 2477 feet; the north of the State is occupied by a still higher table-land, with a maximum elevation of 3367 feet. In the west a group of hills culminates in Deogarh Peak, 3370 feet. Several streams rise in the hills, of which the largest is the Heshto, a tributary of the Mahánadi. Large forest tracts of *sál* timber exist, but have not hitherto been utilized. Alternating with the forest areas are wide stretches of pasture land, from which grazing dues to the extent of about £150 a year are realized. Iron is found throughout the State, and a tribe of Kols, called Agariás from their occupation, are largely engaged in iron-smelting. Good coal is found in the Barákhar rocks, which form the upper surface in the northern part of the State; and underlying the Mahádeva sandstones forming the central plateau. Crops consist of rice, wheat, barley, Indian corn, *marua*, pulses, oil-seeds, cotton, etc. Jungle products, stick-lac and resin. Tigers and wild elephants formerly committed serious depredations; but of late years the former have been reduced by increased rewards for their destruction, and the elephants have been captured or driven out by successful *kheda* operations.

The area of the State is 1625 square miles, containing in 1881, 249 villages, 5798 houses, and a total population of 29,846 persons. Classified according to religion, Hindus numbered 29,638, and Muhammadans 208. Classified according to sex, there were—15,162 males and 14,684 females; proportion of males, 50·8 per cent.; average density of population, 18·3 persons per square mile. Of aboriginal tribes (although not returned separately in the Census Report of 1881), the most numerous and influential are the Gonds, who numbered 4644 in 1872; the two leading sub-proprietors of the State belong to this tribe. Next in importance are the Cherus (3009 in 1872). These tribes are returned as Hindus according to religion. The principal village and the residence of the chief is Sonhát, situated on the plateau so named, at an elevation of 2477 feet; lat. 82° 35′ N., long. 23° 28′ E. The chief's family call themselves Chauhán Rájputs, and claim descent from a chief of that clan, who conquered Koreá 600 years ago. Estimated revenue of the chief, about £700; tribute, £40.

Koreá.—Hill range in the tributary State of Koreá, Chutiá Nágpur, Bengal, the highest point of which is situated in lat. 23° 31′ 30″ N.,

and long. 82° 18′ 30″ E. Principal peaks:—(1) Deogarh, 3370 feet; (2) Jutársuka, 3238 feet; (3) Khoro, 3219 feet; (4) Churi, 3010 feet; (5) Kuhi, 3007 feet; (6) Gagadand, 2945 feet; (7) Gogragarh, 2847 feet; (8) Machigarh, 2839 feet; (9) Jogi, 2805 feet; (10) Tithitangarh, 2790 feet; (11) Bunjári, 2775 feet; (12) Jangiá, 2746 feet; (13) Damaur, 2715 feet; (14) Gorba, 2708 feet; (15) Baskata, 2657 feet; (16) Mardanighát, 2561 feet; (17) Sula, 2534 feet; (18) Maráon, 2505 feet; and (19) Báman, 2217 feet.

Koregaon.—Sub-division of Sátára District, Bombay Presidency. Area, 349 square miles; containing 1 town and 73 villages, with 11,033 houses. Population (1872) 89,030; (1881) 81,187, namely, 39,392 males and 41,795 females. In 1881, Hindus numbered 78,548; Muhammadans, 2196; and 'others,' 443. In 1884, the Sub-division contained 1 civil and 2 criminal courts; police station, 1; regular police, 49 men; village watch, 99. Land revenue, £24,429.

Kori.—River in the Native State of Cutch, Gujarát, Bombay Presidency. Kori is the name applied to the eastern mouth of the Indus. Although of little value for trade or irrigation, the locality is of historic interest. Alexander the Great (325 B.C.) and Ptolemy (125 A.D.) knew it as Lonibare, a chief entrance to the Indus. About 1000 A.D. the main stream appears to have turned to the west; but as late as the middle of the 18th century the Koli branch had water enough to irrigate the State of Lakhpat. According to tradition, the river was deep enough to have a port at Sindhi, 50 miles up; then shoaling, the port had to be moved 14 miles lower down to Sindu. Afterwards the port was fixed at Lakhpat, 20 miles from the mouth; and now the port is at Koteshwar. These changes are attributed to the change in the course of the main stream of the Indus. One period of this change was particularly disastrous. During the 11th or 12th century, while the change was in progress, the great city of Alor and '1000 towns' were swept away. In 1764, when the people of Cutch were beaten by the people of Sind, Ghulám Sháh, the Sindhi conqueror, built an immense dam across the Kori, which almost entirely prevented the Lakhpat rice-land irrigation, and caused a loss of revenue to Cutch of £20,000 a year.

Korigáum.—Town in Poona (Púna) District, Bombay Presidency. Situated on the right bank of the Bhíma river, sixteen miles south of Poona city; the scene of the last of the three battles which led to the collapse of the Maráthá power. The battle was fought on the 1st January 1818 between Captain Stanton and Báji Ráo Peshwá. Captain Stanton, on his march to strengthen Colonel Burr, arrived at Korigáum in the morning after a fatiguing night march, with a detachment of 500 Bombay Native Infantry, 300 irregular horse, and two 6-pounders manned by 24 Madras artillerymen. He found the whole army of the

Peshwá, some 20,000 strong, encamped on the opposite bank of the Bhíma river. The Maráthá troops were immediately sent across against the exhausted handful of soldiers, destitute of both provisions and water. The engagement was kept up throughout the day, and resulted in the discomfiture and retreat of the Maráthás. The remarkable feature of this engagement was that the British troops were all natives, without any European support excepting 24 artillerymen, of whom 20 were killed and wounded. Of seven officers engaged, four were killed and one wounded; total casualties, 276 killed, wounded, and missing. This gallant fight is now commemorated by a stone obelisk.

Kortalaiyáru.—River in North Arcot and Chengalpat Districts, Madras Presidency.—*See* CORTELLIAR.

Kosala.—Ancient Division of India. It was estimated by Hiuen Tsiang (7th century) at 6000 *li* or 1000 miles in circuit. Its frontiers are not named; but we know from the pilgrim's Itinerary that it must have been bounded by Ujjain on the north, by Maháráshtra on the west, by Orissa on the east, and by Andhra and Kalinga on the south. The limits of the kingdom may be roughly described as extending from near Burhánpur on the Tápti, and Nanda on the Godávari, to Ratanpur in Chhatísgarh, and Nawágadha near the source of the Mahánadi. Within these limits the circuit of the large tract assigned to Kosala is rather more than 1000 miles.—*See* AJODHYA.

Kosa Nág (*Kaiser Nag, Quaizar Nag?*).—Mountain lake and place of pilgrimage in Kashmír State, Northern India, on the north side of the Fateh Panjál Mountains. Lat. 33° 30′ N., long. 74° 52′ E. According to Thornton, it is three-quarters of a mile in length, by 500 yards in breadth. Supplied by the melting of the snow. Gives rise to the river Veshau, a tributary of the Jehlam. Venerated by the Hindus under the name of Vishnu Pádh, from a legend that the god produced it by stamping with his foot. Estimated elevation above sea-level, 12,000 feet.

Kosi.—North-western *tahsíl* of Muttra (Mathura) District, North-Western Provinces, lying along the western bank of the Jumna, and consisting mainly of an arid plain, intersected by ravines. Area (1881–82), 153 square miles, of which 125 square miles are cultivated, 19·8 square miles cultivable, and 8·2 square miles uncultivable waste. Of the total cultivated area, 83,117 acres, or 26 per cent., are irrigated from the Agra Canal, which intersects the *tahsíl*, crossing the Delhi road about a mile south of Kosi town. Land revenue, £16,720; total Government revenue, including rates and cesses, £18,727; rental paid by cultivators, £22,937. Population (1872) 73,808; (1881) 65,293, namely, males 34,002, and females 31,291, showing a decrease of 8515, or 11·5 per cent., in the nine years since 1872. Classified according to religion, there were, in 1881—Hindus, 56,275; Muhammadans,

8093; Jains, 924; 'other,' 1. Of the 55 villages comprising the *tahsíl*, 14 contained less than five hundred inhabitants.

The crops most extensively grown in Kosi *tahsíl* are *joár*, gram, and barley. The villages, with but a few exceptions, are held under *bháyachára* tenure, divided into infinitesimal shares among village communities; so that, excepting a few shopkeepers and menial servants, almost every resident is, to some extent, a landed proprietor. As a natural result of this sub-division of estates, there is not a single large landed proprietor. In 1883, the *tahsíl* contained 1 criminal court, with 3 police circles (*thánás*), a regular police force numbering 42 men, besides 190 village watchmen (*chaukídárs*).

Kosi.—Town and municipality in Muttra (Mathura) District, North-Western Provinces, and head-quarters of Kosi *tahsíl*. Stands in lat. 27° 47′ 40″ N., and long. 77° 28′ 45″ E., on the open plain, 10 miles west of the Jumna, and 29 miles north-west of Muttra town, on the metalled road to Delhi. Population (1872) 12,770; (1881) 11,231, namely, Hindus, 6831; Muhammadans, 3866; Jains, 533; and Christian, 1. The town contains the largest cattle mart in the District, police station, post-office, dispensary, and Anglo-vernacular school. The streets are fairly well drained, and paved with brick and stone. During the Mutiny, the District officials took refuge at Kosi for a while, but were compelled to flee by the defection of the Bhartpur (Bhurtpore) force. The townspeople, however, remained well affected. Municipal revenue in 1881–82, £1077, or 1s. 11d. per head of population.

Kosigi.—Town in Adoni *táluk*, Bellary District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 15° 51′ N., long. 78° 17′ E.; 18 miles north of Adoni. Population (1881) 4907. Hindus numbered 4530; Muhammadans, 376; and Christian, 1. Number of houses, 979. An irregularly-built town, containing not a single good street. It is situated at the foot of a rock, on which stand the ruins of fortifications and temples. According to tradition, Kosigi was founded by Súrapáh Naik, an officer of the Anigundi Rájá, who visited the place on a marauding expedition. Not far from the town is a curious isolated rock known by the name of 'The Sisters'—Akkachellelu. The north-west line of the Madras Railway has a station here.

Kotá.—Village in Gúdúr *táluk*, Nellore District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 14° 3′ N., long. 80° 5′ E. Population (1881) 4400; number of houses, 978. Hindus numbered 4242, and Muhammadans, 158. Station of a sub-magistrate. Police station and post-office.

Kotá.—Village in Wún District, Berár. Lat. 20° 31′ 30″ N., long. 78° 19′ E.; 14 miles north-east of Yeotmál. Contains 434 houses; population (1881) 1951. Large weekly market. Police station, school, and *serái*.

Kota (or *Kotu*, *Koter*, *Kotar*, *Kohatur*, *Kottur*).—A primitive tribe

inhabiting the Nílgiri Hills, Madras Presidency. The Kotas profess to have no traditions; but the Todas, another primitive tribe of the Nílgiris, assert that the Kotas were a caste of artisans, brought from the plains to work for the Todas on certain conditions. The Kota men, according to Dr. Shortt, 'are well made and of tolerable height, rather good-featured and light-skinned, having a copper colour, and some of them are the fairest-skinned among the hill tribes. They have well-formed heads covered with long black hair, grown long and let loose, or tied up carelessly at the back of the head.' The women are of moderate height, of fair build of body, but not so good-looking as the men. They have more of a snub nose, and a somewhat vacant expression. The Kotas recognise no caste among themselves, but are divided into *keris*, and a man of one *keri* must seek a wife in another. They are not allowed to keep buffaloes; but they have cows, which they neither milk for consumption nor for sale. The buffaloes are kept by the Todas, by whom the Kotas are called *kuof* or cow-people. The Kotas eat all sorts of flesh, even carrion. Mr. Metz observes that 'at no time do they thrive so well as when there is a murrain among the herds of the Todas and Badagas.' They are addicted to drinking and opium-smoking. All the other hill tribes have a great contempt for the Kotas on account of their eating carrion. They live in villages of from 50 to 60 houses, built of mud and thatch, and irregularly arranged. The verandahs of some houses have stone pillars, sculptured by cutters from the low country. In each village, one or two houses are set apart, to which the women retire during seasons of purification.

The Kotas worship one God, Kamátaráya, and his wife; each of whom is represented by a silver plate. They have two great annual festivals, one in honour of Kamátaráya, and the other in honour of the dead who have died during the year. The former lasts for a fortnight. Their national dance requires six or eight performers, who stand in a row, their motions being uniform. The main characteristic of the dance is the way in which the draperies of the performers swing to and fro with the measure.

The Kotas marry only one wife, unless she should be barren, when they may take another; in this case the two wives live together in the same house. Widows may re-marry. The Kotas have two funeral ceremonies, at both of which cows and buffaloes are slaughtered. After ceremonies performed in the house, the corpse is taken to the *dué* or burning ground, and burnt with certain implements of the deceased. The bones are then collected, and buried near the burning place, and a stone is placed over them. The skull is, however, kept till the 'dry' or second funeral, which must take place on a Monday or Thursday. At the 'dry' funeral each skull is wrapped in a new cloth and placed on a cot; and after certain ceremonies the skulls are

burned, together with the bows, arrows, and other implements of the deceased.

The Kota language is a dialect of Kánarese. The Kotas are the artisans of the hills, and are necessary to all the tribes as their blacksmiths, carpenters, tanners, rope and umbrella makers, potters, musicians, and workers in gold and silver. The Kotas in 1881 numbered 1062.

Kot Adu.—Town in Sinánwán *tahsíl*, Muzaffargarh District, Punjab. Lat. 30° 28′ 14″ N., long. 71° 0′ 30″ E. Situated on the road from Muzaffargarh to Dera Ismáil Khán, 33 miles from Muzaffargarh town, and 10 miles from the river Indus, in lat. 30° 28′ 14″ N., long. 71° 0′ 30″ E. Population (1868) 2761; (1881) 2574, namely, Hindus, 1627; Muhammadans, 946; and Sikh, 1. Number of houses, 460. Municipal income (1881-82), £107. Kot Adu is in all respects an ordinary village with narrow lanes and mud-built houses, and derives its only importance from being an agricultural centre, a halting-place for travellers marching along the left bank of the Indus, and the largest village in the Sinánwán *tahsíl*, of which it was at one time the head-quarters. Its only manufacture is that of ornamented bows and arrows. Police outpost station, rest-house, school, and dispensary.

Kotáe.—Remains of an old city, twelve miles north of Bhúj, on the shores of the Rann of Cutch (Kachchh), with several ruined temples of perhaps the early part of the 10th century. The Sun temple, known as Rá Lákha's, ascribed to Lákha Phuláni, who is said to have fixed his capital here for a time, is built of the yellowish and red stone used also at Kerá, and is roofed in a peculiar way. The aisles are covered by a sort of groins, like the side-aisles in some Chaitya caves; the nave is roofed the same way as at the Amarnáth temple,—the central area being covered with massive slabs hollowed out in the centre, in which a pendant has been inserted. Outside, it has a slanting roof divided into four sections of slightly different heights, that next to the spire being the highest, and the remote end the lowest; each section is terminated by a neatly carved gable-end. The whole has been built without any cement, and most of the stones are hollowed out on the under or inner side as if for the purpose of making them lighter. The porch has long since fallen away. The door of the temple has been neatly carved with the nine *grahas* or patrons of the planets over the lintel; the jambs are also carefully sculptured. The shrine door is elaborately carved with two rows of figures on the frieze, Ganapati on the lintel, and the jambs richly ornamented. The area behind the central jamb is roofed with large slabs, carved with sixteen female figures linked in one another's arms in a circle, with the legs crossed and turned towards the centre. Each holds a rod or bar in either hand, the left hand being bent down and

the right up, and so interlaced with the arms of the figures on either side. In two neat *gokhlas* or niches, advanced from the front wall of the shrine, and with two colonnettes in front of each, there have been standing images in *alto relievo*, neatly canopied by a lotus flower and buds growing over the *muguts* or head-dresses. Enormously elongated *munis* or *bhringis* seem to have been the supporters.

Beyond a ravine to the north-east are fragments of two other temples facing west. Of the first, and higher up of the two, only plain square pillars of the *mandap* and the lower part of the *vimána* are standing. The general style is the same as that of the other temples, but much plainer. The stones are cut away below as at the first temple. The lower of the two is also only a fragment of the shrine of a Súrya temple, with Ganapati on the lintel, and the nine *grahas* on the frieze. There are no figures outside. Foundations still remain on this part of the hill, showing that whole edifices must have been carted away for building purposes elsewhere.—BURGESS' *Archæological Survey of Western India.*

Kotágiri.—Hill station and tea-growing centre in Nílgiri District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 11° 20′ to 11° 20′ 10″ N., long. 76° 51′ to 76° 56′ E. Contains 934 houses and (1881) 3691 inhabitants. Area, about 12 square miles. It is in the Paraganád Nád, situated at the north-east end of the plateau, 17 miles from Utákamand (Ootacamund), and 12 from Coonoor, at an average height of 6500 feet above sea-level. In the opinion of residents, it has the best climate to be found on these hills; and the Marquis of Dalhousie preferred it to Utákamand. The station, which was founded in 1830, has 12 or 15 European houses, and a small church. The residents are nearly all proprietors of neighbouring tea estates. The annual rainfall is about 50 inches. Near Kotágiri is the military sanitarium of Dimhatti, now abandoned. A *ghát* or pass in fair order leads from Kotágiri to the plains of Coimbatore. Dispensary, rest-house, *bázár*, police station, and post-office.

Kotah. — Native State in Rájputána, under the political superintendence of the Kotah Agency. The State lies between 24° 30′ and 25° 51′ N. lat., and between 75° 40′ and 76° 59′ E. long. Bounded on the north and north-west by the river Chambal, which separates it from Búndí (Boondee) State; on the east by Gwalior, the Tonk district of Chhapra, and by part of Jháláwár; on the south by the Mokandarra Hills and Jháláwár; and on the west by Udaipur (Oodeypore). Area, 3797 square miles. Population (1881) 517,275; density of population, 136 persons per square mile. Chief town, KOTAH.

Physical Aspects.—Kotah State slopes gently northwards from the high table-land of Málwá, and is drained by the Chambal with its

tributaries, all flowing in a northerly or north-easterly direction. The Mokandarra range, from 1200 to 1600 feet above sea-level, runs from south-east to north-west, forming the southern border of Kotah, and separating it from Jháláwár. The Mokandarra Pass through these hills, in the neighbourhood of the highest peak (1671 feet), has been rendered memorable by the passage of Colonel Monson's army on its disastrous retreat in 1804. The defile is strikingly picturesque, and forms one of the chief outlets between the Deccan and Northern India. The hills are for the most part clothed with a thick jungle of stunted trees and undergrowth. There are no forests of any size, but several extensive game preserves, chiefly covered with grass. The largest of these is about 7 miles from the city of Kotah, and is 12 miles in length, with an average breadth of 4 miles. Of the tributaries of the Chambal within the State, the Kálí Sind, with its feeder, the Parwán, is the principal. It enters Kotah from the south, and joins the Chambal near the village of Piparda. The Párbatí flows due north for 80 miles, and falls into the Chambal in the extreme north-eastern corner of the territory. It forms the north and south-eastern boundary of the State for a considerable portion of its length, separating it from the Chhapra *parganá* of Tonk on the south, and from Gwalior on the north. The rivers contain trout and *mahsír*, besides other fish; crocodiles are numerous, and those in the Chambal are of large size. There are no natural lakes, but numerous small artificial tanks, for irrigation purposes, have been made by throwing masonry embankments across watercourses. The wild animals of the State include the 'golden' lion, the tiger, four varieties of leopards, two of cheetahs (hunting leopard), hyæna, wolf, bear, jackal, wild dog, etc.; the bison, the *sámbhar*, the *nílgai*, the *chítal* (spotted deer), and antelope. Kotah is celebrated for its parrots; birds of every variety abound.

History.—The territory of Kotah is an offshoot from Búndí (Boondee), forming with that State the tract named Háráotí after the dominant tribe of Hára Rájputs. About the year 1625, Kotah and its dependencies were bestowed on Madhu Singh, second son of Ráo Rattan of Búndí, in acknowledgment of his services during the campaign which forced the imperial prince, who afterwards became the Emperor Sháh Jahán, to flee almost unattended from Burhánpur. Madhu Ráo, who assumed the rank and title of Rájá, ruled for several years. He distinguished himself as a commander in the Mughal service; and his territory was augmented until it touched Málwá on one side, and Búndí on the other. He was succeeded by his eldest son, Mokand Singh, who with his four brothers fought desperately in a battle at Ujjain, against the revolt headed by Prince Alamgír, afterwards the Emperor Aurangzeb. All the brothers were slain, with the exception of the youngest, Kishor Singh, who, though desperately

wounded, eventually recovered. The son of Mokand Singh, Jagat Singh, succeeded to the dignity of Rájá. In the beginning of the 18th century, the State, already weakened by civil dissensions, was attacked by Jaipur (Jeypore), and also by the Maráthás, who successfully enforced their claims to tribute. Kotah was only saved from absolute ruin at this juncture by the talents of the minister Zálim Singh, into whose hand the Mahárao Umed Singh surrendered all power (*see* JHALAWAR). By playing off one party against another, Zálim Singh succeeded in piloting the State safely through the storms of a period in which the whole of Central India was desolated by Maráthá, Pindárí, and other predatory hordes; and in the course of forty-five years, he raised Kotah to the rank of one of the most flourishing and powerful States in Rájputána. He was one of the first Rájput chiefs to co-operate with the British Government for the suppression of the Pindárís.

Through Zálim Singh a treaty was made in 1817 by which Kotah was taken under British protection; the tribute formerly paid to the Maráthás was made payable to the British Government, who accounted to Sindhia for his share; and the Mahárao agreed to furnish troops when required. A supplementary article vested the administration in Zálim Singh and his heirs for ever. Even during Zálim Singh's lifetime, on the succession of a new chief, inconvenience was felt through this arrangement, and a British force had to be sent to insist upon it. On Zálim Singh's death, his son was notoriously unfit to govern the State; and hence it was finally resolved, in 1838, with the consent of the chief of Kotah, to dismember the State, and to create a new principality of Jháláwár as a separate provision for the descendants of Zálim Singh (*see* JHALAWAR). The Mahárao's tribute was reduced by £8000, which sum was to be paid by Jhálawár, and he agreed to maintain an auxiliary force at a cost of not less than 3 *lákhs* of rupees (say £30,000). This auxiliary force, known as the Kotah contingent, mutinied in 1857. The Mahárao's troops also revolted, and murdered the Political Agent and his two sons. The Mahárao made no attempt to assist the Political Agent, and, as a mark of the displeasure of Government, his salute was reduced from 17 to 13 guns.

The present Mahárao, Chhatra Sál, a Chauhán Rájput, was born about 1837. He succeeded his father in 1866, and on his accession he was restored the full salute of 17 guns, and has also been guaranteed the right of adoption.

A few years later, the confusion into which the affairs of the State had fallen induced the Mahárao to request the interference of the British Government. Nawáb Sir Fáiz Alí Khán Bahádur, K.C.S.I., was thereupon appointed in 1874 to administer the State, subject to the advice

and control of the Governor-General's Agent in Rájputána. Since his departure from Kotah, the administration has been superintended by a British political officer.

There are in Kotah many nobles, generally the descendants of former Rájás through a cadet branch, who, as a rule, hold their estates on a semi-feudal tenure. The State claims to be the absolute owner of all the soil in the territory. Even *jágírdárs* of the highest class have no power to dispose of their lands by sale. A *jágír* once granted on a feudal tenure cannot be resumed except for disloyalty or misconduct; the grantee has, however, the power of alienating a portion of his grant as a provision for younger sons or other near relatives, and he may raise money on it by mortgage, but this cannot be foreclosed. The present policy of native chiefs tends towards making their subjects of the agricultural class mere tenants-at-will. Yet, as shown by Colonel Tod, the *ráyats* have certain *bapoti* (or ancestral occupancy) rights, which even arbitrary native governments are chary of interfering with. So long as the cultivator pays all his instalments of rent due, his land cannot be resumed or granted to another. All classes depend for their subsistence on the produce of the soil. The majority of the cultivators are poverty-stricken, and live from hand to mouth, although many tracts produce enough grain for exportation in considerable quantities after the needs of home consumption are satisfied.

Crops, etc.—In addition to the usual Indian grains, wheat, cotton, opium, and a little tobacco of good quality are cultivated. Rotation of crops is known and practised to a certain extent. The manufactures are very limited. Cotton fabrics are woven, but are being rapidly superseded by the products of Bombay and Manchester. Articles of wooden furniture are also constructed. The chief articles of export from the State are opium and grain. The imports chiefly consist of salt, cotton, and woollen cloth.

Population.—Previous to 1881, no regular Census had ever been taken of the whole territory. The enumeration of that year showed the total population of the State to be 517,275, males numbering 269,924, and females 247,351. This population dwelt in six towns and 1605 villages, and occupied 130,698 houses. Number of persons per square mile of area, 136·2; number of persons per house, 3·9. Classified according to religion, Hindus numbered 479,634; Muhammadans, 32,866; Jains, 4750; and Christians, 25. Among the Hindus, 43,458 were returned as Bráhmans, 15,255 as Rájputs, 425,671 as 'other Hindu castes,' which included 20,717 Mahájans or Baniyás, 33,488 Gújars, 5009 Játs, 1754 Kachhis, 6576 Ahírs, 46,925 Mínás, 48,882 Chamárs, 43,469 Dhakurs, 16,773 Balais, 8801 Bhíls, and 193,277 'others.' The Muhammadans, classified according to tribes,

are thus distributed:—Shaikhs, 18,545; Sayyids, 1828; Mughals, 542; Patháns, 9078; and 'others,' 2873. The male population is classified into the following seven main groups, namely:—(1) Agriculture, 74,818; (2) day labour, 66,805; (3) handicraft, 20,399; (4) trade, 14,387; (5) service, 21,039; (6) miscellaneous, 30,244; and (7) no occupation, 42,232. About 90 per cent. of the feudal *jágírdárs* belong to the clan of the ruling family.

Administration.—The gross revenue for the year 1881–82 was £294,197, of which the land yielded £177,321. The expenditure in the same year amounted to £239,666, of which £38,472, including £20,000 for maintenance of a contingent force, formed tribute due to the British Government, and £1439 tribute due to Jaipur (Jeypore).

The criminal court at the capital is presided over by a Faujdár, with a staff of ministerial subordinates. He has the power of inflicting penalties up to one year's imprisonment, a fine of £20, and whipping to the extent of 12 stripes. A special constabulary, and one central jail for the whole State, have been established at the capital since the introduction of the present administration. The jail, and the jail and city police, are presided over by the judge of the chief appellate court. For police purposes, the State is divided into 19 *thánás*, with special road guards for the protection of travellers and traffic. Guards are detailed by turns from the different regiments, and relieved yearly.

No regular department of education has as yet been devised for Kotah. There is a school at the capital, in which English, Persian, Sanskrit, and Hindí are taught. The staff consists of 9 teachers, and the average attendance of pupils is 210. The State maintains no schools; but the principal villages possess indigenous institutions, where Gurus, or priests of the Jain sect, teach arithmetic and writing chiefly to sons of Bráhmans and Baniyás, with a view to fitting them for a political or mercantile career.

The city post-office is the only imperial institution of the kind in the State. The only postal route connected with Kotah is that from Jhalrapatan to Deolí.

The British contingent supplied by the State of Kotah is now known as the Deoli Irregular Force. The troops which the Maháráo is allowed to maintain are limited to 15,000 men of all descriptions; there are also 2 field and about 90 other serviceable guns in the State.

Climate.—The climate is very sultry during the prevalence of the hot winds at the commencement of summer, and is considered unhealthy during the rainy season. Endemic fever and spleen invariably appear after the close of the rains. The other diseases most prevalent are ophthalmia, venereal, chest, and rheumatic affections. Cholera

occasionally breaks out in epidemic form. The mean temperature in 1882 was 82° F. The average annual rainfall registered at the city of Kotah, for the seven years ending 1881, was 28·77 inches.

Kotah.—The principal town of the State of Kotah in Rájputána. It is situated in lat. 25° 10′ N., and long. 75° 52′ E., on the right bank of the river Chambal (here crossed by a ferry), and on the route from Nasírábád (Nusseerábád) to Ságar (Saugor). East of the town extends an extensive artificial lake, the Kishor Ságar, which affords great facilities for irrigation. The gardens, however, are neither well laid out nor, until recently, well cared for. The town is of considerable size, and contains a population (1881) of 40,270 persons, namely, Hindus, 30,217; Muhammadans, 9005; and 'others,' 1048. There are many Hindu temples and some mosques. The central jail of the State is established at Kotah, and, for police purposes, the town is divided into 25 wards. There is also a State dispensary, and one school, in which English, Persian, Sanskrit, and Hindí are taught. The post-office in the city is the only imperial institution of the kind within the State. A municipal committee has been formed, and some progress has been made towards the conservancy and sanitation of the city. The heat in Kotah is very great, and there is much sickness during the rainy season. Dr. Moore has pointed out that Kotah, with the Chambal on one side, and the Kishor Ságar Lake on the other, combining to produce a copious percolation of water underneath the city, must always be an unhealthy locality.

Kotaha.—*Parganá* in the Náráyangarh *tahsíl*, Ambálá (Umballa) District, Punjab; consisting of the hill portion of the District, and stretching down for a short distance into the plains. Lat. 30° 32′ 30″ to 30° 45′ 30″ N., and long. 76° 51′ to 77° 13′ E. Area of the hill tract, 97 square miles. Population (1868) 5660, or 58 per square mile. The population of *parganás* is not returned in the Census Report of 1881. Bounded on the west by the Pinjaur valley, and on the north and east by the Náhan or Sirmúr (Sarmor) mountains. The town of Kotaha itself stands in the plains. The hills run in two parallel ranges, continuations of the Siwálik chain in Náhan State. Between them flows the river Ghaggar, while the forest of Morni clothes their sides. In its midst lie two considerable lakes, at an elevation of about 2000 feet above sea-level. A hill divides their surface, but some underground communication apparently exists, as the level of both always remains the same. The people regard them as sacred, and a great gathering annually takes place at a ruined temple in honour of Krishna, on the banks of the larger lake.

The village and fort of Morni are perched high up among the mountain-sides. The people are a simple race, seldom visiting the plains, and clinging to their proprietary rights with the usual

tenacity of hillmen. Kanets, Bháts, Gújars, and Kolis form the principal castes. Originally ruled by Rájput Thákurs owing allegiance to the Sirmúr Rájá, Kotaha became an independent principality about the 15th century; and after the suppression of the Gurkhá invasion by the British in 1815, was made over once more to its native rulers. In 1849 it came under the same reforms as the other cis-Sutlej States, since which period the representatives of the chiefs have become simple *jágírdárs*. Hinduism is the almost universal religion. Polyandry, frequent in the neighbouring hill tribes, does not occur. No roads exist passable even by a pony, and the villages are mere clusters of huts. Nevertheless, cultivation has spread over most of the available hill-sides, and irrigation from the Ghaggar or from drainage fertilizes every possible field. The inhabitants are extremely industrious, and take great pains in cultivating their terraced slopes.

Kotai.—Ruined city on the shores of the Rann of Cutch (Kachchh), Gujarát.—*See* KOTAE.

Kotálpur.—Village and head-quarters of a police circle (*thána*) in Bardwán District, Bengal; situated on the road from Bánkurá and Bishnupur to Jahánábád, and thence to Calcutta. Lat. 23° 1′ 15″ N., long. 87° 38′ 35″ E.

Kotápalli.—Village in Godávari District, Madras Presidency.—*See* KOTIPALLI.

Kotápalli.—Sub-division of Bastar Dependency, Central Provinces; comprising 60 villages, the chief of which are Pamar and Teklet, with an area of 400 square miles. The population is composed of Koís, Máriás, and Telingas. The teak forests, once very valuable, have been overworked. The timber is felled and dragged to the Tál river, and then floated down the Godávari. Kotápalli village is situated in lat. 18° 13′ N., and long. 80° 49′ 30″ E.

Kotappakonda (or *Yellamunda*).—Hill village and celebrated shrine in Narsaráopet *táluk*, Kistna District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 16° 1′ N., long. 80° 5′ E.; the hill-top is 1587 feet above sea-level. Population (1881) 2504; number of houses, 396. A hill 8 miles south of Narsaráopet, with a temple to Siva, about 600 feet above the plain, approached by a winding flight of stone steps. A festival, attended by about 60,000 persons, is held here at the new moon in February. There is a considerable trade in timber at the festival and fair. All sorts of wood, from bamboo switches to logs and beams, are carted there, and are sold before the day is over.

Kotár (*Kotaur*, Κοττιάρα—Periplus; Κοττιάρα Μητρόπολις—Ptolemy; *Cottara*—Peutinger Tables; *Kodu-aru*, 'river-fort'—Malayálam).—Port in Travancore State, Madras Presidency. Lat. 8° 9′ 30″ N., long. 77° 28′ 30″ E. Population (1871) 7338; number of houses, 1879. Population not returned in the Census of 1881. A very old town with long

irregular streets. Contains an ancient pagoda with an important inscription. A sub-magistrate and *munsif* are stationed here. A good school, a Catholic church, and a weaving colony are the only other features of Kotár. The port is now little frequented.

Kotaráikarrái.—*Táluk* in Travancore State, Madras Presidency. Area, 234 square miles. Population (1875) 53,137; (1881) 55,924, namely, 28,253 males and 27,671 females; density of population, 238 persons to the square mile; number of houses, 12,174. Hindus numbered 45,383; Muhammadans, 4327; and Christians, 6214.

Kotaráikarrái.—Town in Travancore State, Madras Presidency. Lat. 9° 0′ 15″ N., long. 76° 49′ 15″ E.

Kotaria.—Town in the Native State of Udaipur (Oodeypore), Rájputána. Situated about 26 miles to the south of the capital, and the residence of a first-class noble of the State, who owns 60 villages. The town gives its name to his estate.

Kotáyam (*Cottayam Kotium*).—Town in Travancore State, Madras Presidency. Lat. 9° 36′ N., long. 76° 34′ E. Population (1871) 6333; (1881) 11,293; number of houses, 2309. Head-quarters of Kotáyam District, and seat of the magistrate and civil courts, post-office, high-class school, and several churches. Situated on the bank of a small river running into the great Cochin backwater. The centre of the Syrian Christian community, who form the majority of the population. Their churches are very old and interesting. The Church Mission Society has been at work at Kotáyam since 1816, and the Syrian bishop also resides here.

Kotáyam.—*Táluk* or Sub-division of Malabar District, Madras Presidency. Area, 656 square miles. Population (1881) 165,775, namely, 81,345 males and 84,430 females, dwelling in 28 villages, containing 25,646 houses. Hindus numbered 124,099; Muhammadans, 39,825; Christians, 1842; and 'others,' 9. In 1883, the *táluk* contained 3 civil and 2 criminal courts; police circles (*thánás*), 8; regular police, 105 men. Land revenue, £10,450.

Kotchandpur.—Village and head-quarters of a police circle (*tháná*) in Jhanidah Sub-division, Jessor District, Bengal; situated on the left bank of the Kabadak river. Lat. 23° 24′ 45″ N., long. 89° 3′ 20″ E. The largest seat of the sugar trade and manufacture in the District, both it and the adjacent village of Suláimánpur being covered with refineries. In 1882, 63 sugar factories produced 156,000 *maunds*, or 5691 tons of sugar, valued at £93,900.

Kote-betta.—Mountain in the territory of Coorg, being the highest peak of a spur which branches off from the Subrahmanya range of the Western Gháts, about 9 miles north of Merkára, 5375 feet above the sea. The summit divides into two peaks, on one of which stands a small stone temple dedicated to Siva. There are two reservoirs of

water, one for the use of the Bráhmans, the other for the Coorgs. The view is reckoned the finest in the magnificent highlands of Coorg. Black bears are found on the hill.

Kothariá.—Petty State in the Hálár division of Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency. It consists of 6 villages, with 1 proprietor. Area, 6 square miles; population (1881) 2336. The revenue is estimated at £1500; and tribute of £94, 16s. is paid to the British Government, and £29, 16s. to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Kothi (*Koti*).—Petty Hill State in the Punjab, subordinate to the Rájá of Keunthál, and conterminous with the Simla territory on the south and east. Lat. (centre of State) 31° 7′ N., long. 77° 15′ E. Area, 36 square miles. Population (1881) 5435; revenue, £606. The chief, Bishnu Chand, a Rájput, received the title of Ráná for services rendered during the Mutiny of 1857. His family originally came from Patná in Bengal. Mashobra, a suburb of Simla, is in Kothi territory. In a deep valley east of Mashobra is the little hamlet of Sipi, where an annual fair is held every May, which is attended by the people of the neighbouring hills in large numbers, and is also a popular resort of holiday-makers from Simla. Naldera, also in Kothi territory, is a little village situated on a beautiful plateau overlooking the Sutlej, bordering a fine *deodár* forest often occupied by the tents of European visitors from Simla.

Kothi.—Petty State in Baghelkhand, under the Baghelkhand Agency, the Central India Agency, and the Government of India. Lat. 24° 4′ to 24° 53′ N., and long. 80° 39′ to 80″ 54′ E. The town of Kothi is in lat. 24° 45′ E., long. 80° 40′ N. The ruling family have long retained possession of their *jágír*, by timely submission to the successive conquerors of Bundelkhand. They were never dispossessed either in the time of the Bundela Rájás or of Alí Bahádur. In 1810, a *sanad* was granted to Lál Dúniapat, the *jágírdár* then in possession, making him directly dependent on the British Government, like the other chieftains in Bundelkhand and Baghelkhand. The present (1883) chief, Ran Bahádur Singh, Rájá Bahádur of Kothi, is a Rájput by caste. The area of the State is about 90 square miles; number of villages, 67. Population (1881) 18,386, namely, males 9218, and females 9168. Classified according to religion, there were—Hindus, 15,649; Muhammadans, 284; Christians, 6; and aboriginal tribes, 2447. Bráhmans form the predominant caste, numbering 3490. Estimated revenue of the State, £3529. The chief exercises jurisdiction within his own territory, independent of the British courts of law, except in crimes of a heinous nature, or where Europeans are concerned, when the jurisdiction lies with the Political Agent.

Kothide.—Guaranteed Thákurate or petty State under the Deputy Bhíl or Bhopáwar Agency, Central India. The estate consists of 11

Bhíl *paras* or hamlets, with a total area of about 4000 acres, 250 acres of which are under cultivation. There are 6 wells for irrigation. Population (1881) 289. Revenue about £50. The Bhúmia of Kothide, Moti Singh, born about 1850, is a younger branch of the Garhi family. He holds his villages from the Rájá of Dhár on the condition of being responsible for robberies committed. The estate is now under British administration, in consequence of the indebtedness of the chief.

Koti.—Petty Hill State in the Punjab, subordinate to Keunthál.—*See* KOTHI.

Kotípalli.—Village in Rámachandrapur *táluk*, Godávari District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 16° 40′ N., long. 82° 6′ E. Population (1881) 2065; number of houses, 398. This village, situated on the left bank of the Gautama Godávari, halfway between Rájámahendri (Rájámundry) and Coringa, is the only portion of the District which belongs to the Mahárájá of Vizianágaram, with the exception of a few yards of land at Rájámahendri. Kotípalli is considered by the Hindus a very sacred place; every twelfth year the village is crowded with devotees; while near the pagoda the river is looked upon as peculiarly sanctifying.

Kot Kamáliá.—Town and municipality in Montgomery *tahsíl*, Montgomery District, Punjab. Situated in lat. 30° 43′ 45″ N., and long. 72° 42′ E., on the old high north bank of the Rávi, 5 miles north-west from the present bed of the river. Distant from Montgomery town 27 miles west, from Chíchawatni railway station 13 miles north. Kamáliá is a very ancient town, and is identified by General Cunningham with one of the towns in the Malli country taken by Alexander. An ancient mound of brick ruins adjoins the present site. Tradition assigns the foundation of the modern town to Khán Kamál, a Kharal chieftain, in the 14th century, from whom it derives its name, and whose descendants still occupy it. The town is an uninteresting place, with low and mean-looking houses. It is traversed by a single *bázár* from east to west. The streets are, as a rule, well paved, and though many of them are narrow and crooked, the drainage, and indeed the sanitary arrangements generally, are excellent.

Population (1868) 5695; (1881) 7594, namely, Muhammadans, 4227; Hindus, 3295; Sikhs, 66; Jain, 1; 'others,' 5. Number of houses, 1021. Since the British annexation, a brisk trade in the produce of the Rávi lowlands has sprung up, and the importance of Kot Kamáliá has been immensely increased by the opening of the Sind, Punjab, and Delhi Railway. The town is now a place of considerable commerce, collecting wheat, grain, and pulses from the surrounding villages and Jhang; *gur* and sugar from Jálandhar and Amritsar; wool from Jhang; piece-goods from Calcutta, Karáchi, Amritsar, and Múltán; *majíth* or madder and fruits from Afghánistán. The exports consist of

lungís, quilts, *darrís* or cotton carpets, etc. In 1857, the insurgent tribes held the town for a week, and completely sacked it. Police station, post-office, schools; *sarái*, with accommodation for European travellers. Municipal revenue in 1875–76, £242; in 1881–82, £547, or an average of 1s. 5d. per head. The municipal income is chiefly derived from octroi.

Kot Kángra.—*See* KANGRA (TOWN).

Kotkhái Kotgarh (correctly *Kotguru*).—*Tahsíl* of Simla District, Punjab. Area, 14 square miles. Population (1881) 9847, namely, males 4854, and females 4993. Hindus numbered 9675; Muhammadans, 131; Sikhs, 2; and 'others,' 39.

Kot Putli.—Town in the Torawáti District of Jaipur State, Rájputána, belonging to the chief of Khetrí, a tributary of Jaipur, on whom it was conferred in perpetuity by Lord Lake in 1803, for military services; distant from Jaipur city 74 miles north-east. Kot Putli possesses a fort and other strong positions, which were of great importance when held by the Maráthás. Annual revenue, £10,000. Population (1881) 8084. Hindus numbered 6118; Muhammadans, 1956; and 'others,' 10. Post-office.

Kotra Náyáni.—Petty State in the Hálár division of Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency. It consists of 1 village, with 4 separate shareholders. Area, 3 square miles; population (1881) 1256. The revenue is estimated at £600; and tribute of £54, 4s. is paid to the Gáekwár of Baroda, and £14, 10s. to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Kotrang.—Town and municipality in Húglí District, Bengal; situated on the right bank of the Húglí river, about 7 miles above Howrah. Lat. 22° 41′ 20″ N., long. 88° 24′ E. Population (1872) 6811; (1881) 5747, namely, Hindus, 4710; Muhammadans, 991; 'others,' 46. Municipal income (1871), £205; (1882–83), £318; average incidence of taxation, 1s. 0½d. per head. The village is principally noted for its brick manufactories, and for a large workshop belonging to the Calcutta municipality.

Kotra Pithá.—Petty State in the Gohelwár division of Káthiáwár, Gujarát, Bombay Presidency. It consists of 13 villages, with 5 separate shareholders. Area, 25 square miles; population (1881) 7186. The revenue is estimated at £6000; and tribute of £485 is paid to the British Government, and £72, 16s. to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Kotra Sangání.—Petty State in the Hálár division of Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency. It consists of 18 villages; area, 37 square miles; population (1881) 8642. The revenue is estimated at £7290; and tribute of £1161, 12s. is paid to the British Government and to Junágarh.

Kotri (*Kotree*).—*Táluk* of Sehwán Sub-division, Karáchi (Kurrachee) District, Sind, Bombay Presidency. Area, including a portion of

Kohistán (1881), 3491 square miles; with 31 villages and 1 town. Population (1881) 36,827, namely, 20,834 males and 15,993 females, occupying 3161 houses. Hindus numbered 4976; Muhammadans, 30,547; Sikhs, 851; Christians, 407; aboriginal tribes, 26; Pársís, 17; and Jews, 3. The *táluk* contains 1 civil and 3 criminal courts; police stations, 12; regular police, 140 men; village watch, 15.

Kotri.—Town and municipality in Karáchi (Kurrachee) District, Sind, Bombay Presidency, and head-quarters of Kotri *táluk*. Population (1881), including the neighbouring hamlets of Khánpur and Miáni Múltáni, 8922, namely, 5813 Muhammadans, 2160 Hindus, 407 Christians, 17 Pársís, and 525 'others.' Situated in lat. 25° 21′ 41″ N., long. 68° 21′ 37″ E., on the right bank of the Indus, here confined by a tolerably permanent bank. Kotri has been placed in considerable danger, however, by sudden and violent inundations of the Báran mountain torrent, to protect it from which a dam was erected some years since. A station on the Sind, Punjab, and Delhi Railway, which communicates with the seaport of Karáchi (106 miles). By the river, here 600 yards wide, and from 9 to 10 feet deep in ordinary seasons, Kotri has regular communication with Sukkur (270 miles), Mithánkot (430 miles), and Multán (570 miles). Besides the steamers, native vessels go up and down with merchandise. The river bank, crowded with flotilla steamers, barges, and small native craft, all discharging or collecting cargo, often presents an animated scene, not to be found at any other station nearer than Sukkur (Sakkar). Sidings convey goods from the railway to the river by zigzag routes, so constructed as to suit any condition of the stream, in flood or drought.

Head-quarters station of Deputy Collector, Civil Surgeon, Conservator and Registrar of the Indus, and judge of subordinate civil court. Protestant and Roman Catholic churches. Civil hospital, court-house, subordinate jail, post-office, Government and other schools, and travellers' bungalow. The Indus Steam Flotilla formerly had its head-quarters at Kotri, with a large floating dock for the repairs of its steamers. Since the connection of the railway in the Indus valley with the general railway system of India, the Indus Steam Flotilla has been abolished, and its fleet of steamers sold. The European quarter, north and west of the native town, stands embosomed in foliage, handsome trees lining all its well-kept and neatly laid-out roads.

Local trade inconsiderable; large transit traffic between Karáchi and the Punjab. The articles of merchandise sent upwards comprise beer, wine, and spirits for the European troops quartered in the Punjab; metals, railway materials, piece-goods, and silk. The return trade consists principally of wool, cotton, grain, oil-seeds, indigo, *ghí*, oil, saltpetre, and sugar. Water from Kotri is forwarded to Karáchi, especially for the manufacture of ice and for drinking pur-

poses. Government ferry plies between Kotri and Gidú Bandar for Haidarábád.

Málik Sardár Khán, chief of the Númria or 'nine men' clan, holds almost all the town in *jágír*. Unimportant village before the British conquest, except in a military point of view. Encamping place in 1839 of the Bombay division of the British army advancing upon Afghánistán. Municipality, established 1854; income (1882–83), £1269; expenditure, £1619; incidence of municipal taxation, 2s. 2d. per head. Epidemic of cholera in 1879, since which date great attention has been paid to sanitary arrangements. In 1878 the railway was opened from Kotri to Sukkur and Múltán, by which the importance of Kotri as a place of trans-shipment has been diminished.

Kottapatam (*Kotapatnam*).—Port in Ongole *táluk*, Nellore District, Madras Presidency. Population (1881) 6267; number of houses, 1378. The average annual value of imports, for the five years ending 1883, was £4839; and of exports, £12,921. In 1882–83, the imports were valued at £1263; and the exports at £8066.—*See also* ALLUR.

Kottayam.—Town in Travancore State, Madras Presidency.—*See* KOTAYAM.

Kottúr.—Town in Polláchi *táluk*, Coimbatore District, Madras Presidency; situated at the foot of one of the passes in the Anamalai Hills, in lat. 10° 32′ N., and long. 77° 2′ E. Population (1881) 7406; number of houses, 1869. Hindus numbered 7153; Muhammadans, 241; and Christians, 12.

Kourtalam.—Town in Tinnevelli District, Madras Presidency.—*See* COURTALLUM.

Kovílam.—Town in Chengalpat District, Madras Presidency.—*See* COVELONG.

Kovúr (*Kóvúru*).—Town in Nellore *táluk*, Nellore District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 14° 30′ N., long. 80° 2′ E. Population (1881) 4478; number of houses, 945. An agricultural centre, 3 miles north of Nellore town, on the northern bank of the Pennár. Police station (*tháná*).

Koyákhái.—River of Orissa. A deltaic offshoot of the Mahánadi, which bifurcates from the main stream opposite Cuttack, and in its turn throws off numerous distributaries, and finally finds its way into the Bay of Bengal, or the Chilká Lake, as the Kusbhadrá, Bhárgavi, and Dayá.

Koyambatúr.—District, *táluk*, and town, Madras Presidency.—*See* COIMBATORE.

Kranganúr (*Cranganore*).—Town in Cochin State, Madras Presidency.—*See* KODUNGALUR.

Krishna.—District and river, Madras Presidency.—*See* KISTNA.

Krishnaganj.—Town and head-quarters of police circle (*tháná*) in Nadiyá District, Bengal; situated on the right bank of the Mátábhángá

river. Lat. 23° 25′ N., long. 88° 45′ 50″ E. One of the principal seats of trade in the District.

Krishnaganj.—Sub-division of Purniah District, Bengal. Lat. 25° 54′ 15″ to 26° 35′ N., and long. 87° 39′ 30″ to 88° 33′ 45″ E. Area 1340 square miles, with 1992 villages and 97,408 houses. Population (1872) 564,430 persons; (1881) 631,301, namely, males 324,317, females 306,984. Muhammadans in 1881 numbered 395,224, or 62·6 per cent.; Hindus, 236,038, or 37·4 per cent.; Christians, 10; 'others,' 29: total, 631,301. Proportion of males in total population, 51·3 per cent.; density of population, 471·12 persons per square mile; villages per square mile, 1·49; persons per village, 317; houses per square mile, 73·66; persons per house, 6·4. This Sub-division comprises the 3 police circles (*thánás*) of Bahádurganj, Krishnaganj, and Káliáganj. In 1883 it contained 1 civil and 2 magisterial courts, with a regular police force of 128 men, besides 1439 village watchmen.

Krishnaganj.—Town in Purniah District, Bengal, and head-quarters of Krishnaganj Sub-division and police circle; situated on the high road to Dárjíling, east of the Mahánandá river. Lat. 26° 6′ 28″ N., long. 87° 59′ 13″ E. The town and immediately surrounding villages form a municipal union, containing, in 1872, a population numbering 8490, and in 1881, 6000, namely, Hindus, 2973, and Muhammadans, 3027. Municipal income in 1882–83, £371, derived from a house-tax; average incidence, 1s. 1⅞d. per head of the population. The public offices are situated 4 miles north-west of the town, at the village of Bháriádángi, where there is also a civil court, sub-registry office, English school, post-office, and charitable dispensary. The police station and staging bungalow are in Krishnaganj itself.

Krishnagar (*Krishnanagar*).—Head-quarters Sub-division of Nadiyá District, Bengal. Lat. 23° 17′ to 23° 48′ 45″ N., and long. 88° 10′ to 88° 50′ 45″ E. Area, 701 square miles, with 544 villages or towns, and 70,576 houses. Population (1881) 374,973, namely, males 181,880, and females 193,093. Hindus numbered 205,298; Muhammadans, 167,378; Christians, 2295; 'others,' 2. Proportion of males in total population, 48·5 per cent.; density of population, 535 persons per square mile; villages per square mile, ·78; persons per village, 689; houses per square mile, 107; persons per house, 5·3. This Sub-division comprises the 6 police circles (*thánás*) of Krishnagar, Hánskhálí, Krishnaganj, Chaprá, Nakasipárá, and Káliganj. In 1883 it contained 5 civil and 10 magisterial courts, and a regular police force of 265 men, besides 813 village watchmen.

Krishnagar.—Town, municipality, and administrative head-quarters of Nadiyá District, Bengal; situated on the left bank of the Jalangí river. Lat. 23° 23′ 31″ N., long. 88° 32′ 31″ E. Population (1872) 26,750; (1881) 27,477, sub-divided as follows:—Hindus, 18,628;

Muhammadans, 8281; 'others,' 568: total, 27,477, namely, 13,263 males and 14,214 females. Area of town site, 4814 acres. Municipal income (1876-77), £1867; (1883-84), £2354; average incidence of taxation, 1s. 7⅝d. per head. Besides the usual Government offices and courts, Krishnagar is also a station of the Church Missionary Society and of a Roman Catholic Mission, each body having its own church and schools. The Krishnagar College, affiliated to the Calcutta University, was attended by 41 students in 1882-83; and its attached collegiate school by 209 pupils in the same year. Both college and collegiate school have shown a steadily decreasing number of pupils of late years, owing to the prevalence of malarious fever in the District. The town is a seat of considerable trade, and is noted for its manufacture of coloured clay figures, a speciality carried on by a few artists of the Kumbhár or potter caste. Krishnagar is the residence of the Rájás of Nadiyá, one of the old historical families of Bengal, for an account of whom see NADIYA DISTRICT.

Krishnagiri (*Kistnagiri*).—*Táluk* in Salem District, Madras Presidency. Area, 680 square miles (435,077 acres). Population (1881) 120,929, namely, 58,911 males and 62,018 females, occupying 21,558 houses in 541 villages. Hindus numbered 115,163; Muhammadans, 5226; Christians, 514; and 'others,' 26. The area liable to revenue is distributed as follows:—Government villages, 246,189 acres, and *muta* and *shrotriem* villages, 188,888 acres. The extent actually under cultivation in *rayatwári* villages is 95,869 acres, paying £11,471. The staples of cultivation are *rági* on dry and paddy on wet lands; but other grain crops, as *varágu*, *cumbu*, and *cholam*, are also largely grown. Irrigation is carried on from the Pennár (Ponnaiyár) and other small rivers, tanks (333), minor reservoirs (71), and wells (6262); irrigated area, 8499 acres, assessed at £3816. There are two irrigation projects, namely, Barúr and Pennagondápúram. The *táluk* contains 1 civil and 2 criminal courts; police circles (*thánás*), 9; regular police, 82 men. Total land revenue, £15,381.

Krishnagiri (*Kistnagiri*).—Town in Krishnagiri *táluk*, Salem District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 12° 32′ N., long. 78° 15′ 40″ E.; containing, with Daulatábád, 1665 houses and 8856 inhabitants, namely, 4183 males and 4673 females, of whom 22 per cent., or 1980, are Musalmáns, chiefly Sepoys. Hindus number 6755; Christians, 114; and 'others,' 7. Situated on the Madras-Bangalore road, the head-quarters of the *táluk*, and formerly the military key to the Báramahál. It consists of two portions, Old and New Krishnagiri, the latter also known as Daulatábád. Both portions are clean, and well laid out in broad streets. To the north towers the *durgam* or fortified hill, rising almost perpendicularly 800 feet over the town. The fortifications are said to have been built by Jagadeva Ráo, but most probably are due to Haidar Alí and Tipú

Sultán. Dilapidated ramparts, reservoirs, and ruined barracks now alone mark the former purpose of the site. Such were its capabilities for defence, that it was never carried by assault. In 1767, and again in 1791, British troops attempted it unsuccessfully, and on several occasions during our operations against Mysore it was found necessary to blockade or mask it. In 1768 it surrendered to a blockading force, and was held by a British garrison for some years, until restored by treaty. In 1803, a powder explosion caused great loss of life, the magazine having been struck by lightning.

Krishnai.—River of Assam, which rises in the Gáro Hills to the north of the Arbelá range, near the village of Mandálang-girí, and, flowing north into Goálpárá District, falls into the Brahmaputra a few miles above Goálpárá town. Its tributaries in the hills are the Banji and Rangri. The principal place on the banks of the Krishnai is the market village of Jirá, where the river debouches upon the plains. In the hills the stream is only used for floating down timber and dug-out canoes, but in the plains it becomes navigable for boats of 2 tons burthen for a distance of 22 miles.

Krishtna.—District and river, Madras Presidency.—*See* KISTNA.

Kubá.—Petty State in the Sorath division of Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency. It consists of 1 village, with 2 separate shareholders. Area, 1 square mile; population (1881) 375. The revenue is estimated at £300.

Kubattúr.—Village in Shimoga district, Mysore State; anciently called Kuntala-nagara. Associated by tradition with King Chandrahása of the *Mahábhárata*, whose romantic story is told at greater length in the Kánarese *Jáimini Bhárata*. Ruins of temples in the Chalukyan style of architecture still exist.

Kuch Behar.—Native State in political relation with the Government of Bengal. It is situated between 25° 57′ 40″ and 26° 32′ 20″ N. lat., and between 88° 47′ 40″ and 89° 54′ 35″ E. long., entirely surrounded by British territory, being bordered by the Western Dwárs of Jalpáigurí on the north and by Rangpur District on the south. The area, including certain outlying and detached tracts in Rangpur and Jalpáigurí Districts, is 1307 square miles; and the population, according to the Census of 1881, numbers 602,624 persons. The administrative head-quarters and the principal residence of the Mahárájá are at KUCH BEHAR town.

Physical Aspects.—The State forms a level plain of triangular shape, intersected by numerous rivers. The greater portion is fertile and well cultivated, but tracts of jungle are to be seen in the north-east corner, which abuts upon the Province of Assam. The general green of the arable fields is only broken by bamboo clumps and orchards, which surround the homestead of each *jotdár* or substantial farmer. The

soil is uniform in character throughout, consisting of a light, friable loam, varying in depth from 6 inches to 3 feet, superimposed upon a deep bed of sand. The whole is detritus, washed down by torrents from the neighbouring Himálayas.

The rivers all pass through the State from north to south, with a slight inclination towards the east, on their way from the mountains to join the main stream of the Brahmaputra. The following six are generally navigable for small trading boats throughout the year, and, with the exception of the Tístá and the Ráidhak, are fordable at places during the dry season:—The Tístá, Singímárí, Torshá or Dharlá, Káljání, Ráidhak, and Gadádhar. There are, besides, some twenty minor streams which become navigable only during the rainy season. The river beds are nowhere strongly defined. The streams have a tendency to cut new channels for themselves after every annual flood, and they communicate with one another by cross-country watercourses. These fluvial changes have scattered over the country many pools and marshes of stagnant water. There are no embankments or artificial canals, nor are any mineral products known to exist.

History.—As is the case with many of the Native States throughout India, the ruling family of Kuch Behar lays claim to a divine origin. There can be no doubt that this region contained the capital of the ancient Hindu kingdom of Kámrúp, which was overthrown by the Afghán kings of Gaur towards the close of the 15th century. Local traditions of the national dynasty still live in the memories of the people, and the ruins of more than one of their capitals are pointed out at the present day. On their downfall, according to all accounts, succeeded a period of anarchy, during which the land was overrun by wild tribes from the north-east. Among these the Kochs came to the front, and ultimately founded the kingdom of Kuch Behar. The first rulers were evidently powerful princes, for their influence extended over the greater part of Assam and Bhután, and they were able to maintain a show of independence against the Mughal Nawábs of Bengal. But when the British entered into relations with the State its power was at a very low ebb.

The generally received tradition makes one Hájo, of the Koch tribe, the earliest known founder of the dynasty; but according to a second legend, more popular at Court, the family trace back to a Mech called Háriyá. Both stories agree in introducing two women, Hirá and Jirá, who are variously described as sisters or as wives of a common husband. The part assigned to Jirá is unimportant; but the beauty of Hirá attracted the love of the great god Siva, by whom she became the mother of a son, Visu or Biswa Singh, the first king of Kuch Behar. All the members of the ruling family bear the name of Náráyan or Lord. The common people, at least those who have not embraced Islám, call themselves by the high-sounding title of Rájbansí or 'royal-

born'; and the official appellation of the State is Níj Behar, *Nij* = 'own' or 'peculiar,' being used to distinguish the country from Behar proper.

The greatest monarch of the dynasty was Nar Náráyan, the son of Visu Singh, who began to reign about 1550 A.D. He conquered the whole of Kámrúp, and built temples in Assam, of which ruins still exist bearing inscriptions with his name. He compelled the Deb Rájá of Bhután to pay tribute, and extended his power southwards over what is now part of the British Districts of Rangpur and Purniah. To this reign also is attributed the introduction of the well-known Náráyaní currency, the privilege of coining which has not yet been entirely abolished, although the custom has fallen into disuse. Old Náráyaní coins are not in general circulation, but are accepted at the treasury at a fixed rate. A few coins have been struck to celebrate the accession of recent Rájás, but not for circulation. The privilege, when enjoyed, was much abused, and the existing Náráyaní rupees are very bad silver.

The Koch kingdom did not long retain its independence. Nar Náráyan divided his Assam possessions among his brothers, where their descendants are to be found at the present day as wealthy *zamíndárs.* His son, Lakshmí Náráyan, who succeeded him in Kuch Behar, came into collision with the Mughal Empire, and was carried away prisoner to Delhi, whence he returned shorn of the attributes of sovereignty. The history of the State now loses all general interest. The Mughals closed round it from the south, though they never actually annexed it, as a revenue-paying unit, to the Province of Bengal. On the north, the Bhutiás commenced a regular system of depredations, and went so far as to assert the right of interfering in the succession to the throne. The internal affairs of the State also fell into deplorable confusion. In accordance with the curse of the Hindu political system, three families, all scions of the royal stock,—the Ráikat of Báikanthpur, the Názir Deo, and the Díwán Deo,—each claimed a hereditary position which was inconsistent with unity of administration, and did not hesitate to call in the foreign foe to support their pretensions.

It was under these circumstances that the East India Company gained their first knowledge of Kuch Behar. In 1772, the Názir Deo, having been driven out of the country by his rivals, who were aided by the Bhutiás, applied for assistance to Warren Hastings, then Governor-General of Bengal. A detachment of Sepoys was accordingly marched into Kuch Behar; the Bhutiás were expelled, after a sharp resistance, and forced to sue for peace through the intervention of the Lama of Tibet. The treaty made upon this occasion, bearing date April 1773, is the only authoritative document to determine the relations now existing between the two parties. By the third clause the Rájá acknow-

ledged subjection to the Company, and consented to his country being annexed to the Province of Bengal. In subsequent clauses he promised to make over to the Company one-half of his annual revenues, according to an assessment to be settled by the Company. The precise amount of this moiety was not determined until 1780, when it was fixed by the Collector of Rangpur at Sikká Rs. 62,722, equivalent to Company's Rs. 67,700 (say £6770), which sum has continued to be paid into the treasury of Goálpárá up to the present day. As to the important question of the amount of interference which the British might exercise in the internal administration, the treaty is entirely silent. No doubt it was hoped that things would now go on quietly; and even in subject *zamíndárís* at this time, the British were not inquisitive about misgovernment, provided that there were no outbreaks of violence, and the revenue was punctually paid. But though the Bhutiás had been driven out, the rivalry of domestic faction continued unabated. Anarchy was rendered yet more intense by a long minority, and the worse evil of the regency of a Rání. Conspiracies and murders repeatedly demanded the armed interference of the Collector of Rangpur. A commission of two civil servants was nominated in 1788 to inquire into the state of the country. In their report they are careful to point out that the Rájá 'had made only a partial and voluntary surrender of his rights, and maintained his independence unimpaired in his domestic administration.' They concluded by recommending the appointment of a Resident or Commissioner at the town of Kuch Behar. This office subsequently became merged in that of Governor-General's Agent for the North-east Frontier; and its occupant was usually too much engaged with the troublous affairs of Assam to pay any attention to Kuch Behar. The little State went on after its own fashion for many years, presenting a unique picture of the merits and demerits of native Bengalí administration.

In 1863, the death of the Rájá, leaving a son and heir only ten months old, attracted the attention of the Government. It was resolved that a British Commissioner should undertake the direct management of affairs during the minority of the prince. No organic changes were effected beyond what was absolutely necessary; but an attempt has been made to give tone and vigour to the administration, by the example of administrative energy and judicial uprightness. Among the many reforms introduced, the following are the most noteworthy:—A complete survey of the State, accompanied by a settlement of the land revenue and a record of all rights in the soil; the reorganization of the police, and the establishment of an education department; good carriage roads have been constructed, to connect the State with adjacent commercial centres; rivers have been bridged, plantations of valuable trees laid out, and an efficient system of postal and tele-

graphic communication established. The young Rájá received his early training under an able European officer at Patna, and subsequently attended law lectures for three years at the Presidency College, Calcutta. In 1878 he married a daughter of the late Bábu Keshab Chandra Sen, and in the same year he paid a visit to England. He attained his majority in October 1883, when he assumed the administration of the State. He has been appointed an honorary Major in the British Army, and is attached to the 6th Bengal Cavalry. The higher title of Mahárájá has also been conferred upon him.

People.—The Census of 1872 returned a total population of 532,565 persons, residing in 1199 *mauzás* or villages and in 81,820 houses. In 1881 the population was returned at 602,624, showing an increase of 70,059, or 13·1 per cent., in the nine years. Area of State (1881), 1307 square miles, with 1214 villages, and 115,720 houses. Persons per square mile, 461; villages per square mile, 0·93; houses per square mile, 91. The average number of persons per village is 496; of persons per house, 5·21. Classified according to sex, there are 311,678 males and 290,946 females; proportion of males, 51·4 per cent. Classified according to age, there are, under 15 years—123,073 boys and 114,592 girls; total children, 237,665, or 39·4 per cent. of the total population; above 15 years—males 188,605, and females 176,354; total adults, 364,959, or 60·6 per cent. of the population. The occupation returns are not trustworthy; but it may be mentioned that the total number of male adults connected with agriculture is returned at 125,559. Classified according to religion, Hindus number 427,478; Muhammadans, 174,539; Jains, 144; Christians, 48; and 'others,' 415.

The great bulk of the population is undoubtedly of mixed origin, in which the aboriginal element strongly predominates. The aborigines proper are poorly represented, and consist mainly of Morangs, Gáros, and Mechs. But the semi-Hinduized aborigines, with the addition of the Muhammadans, who are not ethnologically to be distinguished from them, form together upwards of 90 per cent. of the total population. The Rájbansís alone, the name by which the Koch tribe is known at the present day in its original head-quarters, number 299,458 souls, or 49·7 per cent. of the whole. The KOCH or Rájbansí is a widely spread tribe, evidently of aboriginal descent, which is found throughout all northern Bengal, from Purniah District to the Assam valley. In ethnical affinities, they are apparently connected with the Indo-Chinese races of the north-east frontier; but they have now become largely Hinduized, especially in their own home, where the appellation 'Koch' has come to be used as a term of reproach. They have adopted exclusive caste habits, and pride themselves upon their purity in eating and drinking. But it is charged against them that their

numbers are largely recruited by the offspring of mixed marriages and illicit connections. Of the Hindus proper, the Bráhmans number 3530; the Kshattriyas or Rájputs, 3197; the Káyasths, 2522. The most numerous caste is that of the Tiors, a low semi-aboriginal caste of fishermen, menials, and swineherds, numbering 54,152. Next to these in numerical order are the Bagdís, 14,196; Chandáls, 5208; Jugís, 4431; Kurmís, 3586; Nápits, 3052; Kaibarttas, 2678; Jaliyás, 2640; and Málís, 2156. There are a few members of the Bráhma Samáj, who have a regular place of meeting in Kuch Behar town. The Vaishnavs are returned at 1210. The Christian population comprises 32 Europeans, 3 Eurasians, 9 Native Christians, and 4 unspecified.

KUCH BEHAR town, which contains the palace of the Rájá, and has 9535 inhabitants, is the only place worthy the name of a town in the State. Even villages, in the ordinary sense of the word, are unknown. Out of a total of 1214 *mauzás* returned in the Census Report, as many as 827 have a population of less than 500 persons each. The people do not gather into hamlets of any sort, but each well-to-do family lives apart in its own homestead. Within the State are situated the extensive ruins of two ancient walled cities, known as Dharma Pál's city and Kamatápur, capitals of the Kámrúp monarchy before the rise of Kuch Behar.

Agriculture.—Rice constitutes the staple crop throughout the State, being grown on about three-fourths of the total cultivated area. The *áman* or *haimantik* harvest, reaped in December and January, furnishes about 55 per cent. of the food-supply; the *áus* or *bítari*, about 21 per cent., the remainder being made up by millets, wheat, and various sorts of pulses. Jute and tobacco are largely grown for exportation, over an area that is increasing year by year. Manure, in the form of cow-dung, is used by the cultivators for special crops, the quantity being determined by the number of cattle they keep. Irrigation is rarely practised. Lands are occasionally allowed to lie fallow, but the principle of the rotation of crops is unknown. The average out-turn of an acre of rice land varies from 11 to 20 cwt., valued at from £1, 11s. to £2, 13s. The value of a second crop, if obtained from the same field, would be about £1 additional. The rates paid by all classes of cultivators are practically fixed by the Government Settlement, which is to last for twelve years.

The Rájá is the actual owner of the soil; and he deals directly only with the *jotdárs* and *chukánidárs*, substantial farmers, who frequently cultivate the land themselves, but also let it out to under-tenants. These again sub-let, and about half the area held by the *jotdárs* and *chukánidárs* is cultivated by *ádhiárs*, who have no interest in the soil, but receive a certain share of the produce.

According to the Settlement now current, the *jotdár* pays a rent of 3s. an acre, and is expressly prohibited from exacting an increase of more than 25 per cent. from his under-tenant, who in his turn is laid under similar restrictions with regard to the *ádhiár*. At the same time, an effort has been made to improve the position of the *ádhiárs*, by giving them some degree of fixity of tenure. It is reported that the cultivators of Kuch Behar are generally in a better position than men of the same class in the neighbouring Districts of Bengal.

The ordinary rates of wages appear to have trebled within the past thirty years. Both common labourers and skilled artisans require to be imported from the south. In 1850, a coolie received only 3s. a month; he now receives about 14s. In the same period, the wages of an agricultural labourer have risen from 4s. to 10s. a month; and those of a local artisan from 5s. to 16s. On the other hand, the price of food-grains would seem to have remained almost stationary. Common rice, which fetched 4s. 9d. per cwt. in 1861, is reported to have sold at 4s. 1d. per cwt. in 1870, the average price in 1883 being 5s. 6d. per cwt. The maximum price reached in 1866, the year of the Orissa famine, was 10s. 11d. per cwt.

Kuch Behar is not specially exposed to the calamities of either flood or drought. Heavy rain in the Bhután Hills sometimes causes inundation. On two occasions in recent years, in 1854 and in 1873, the failure of the crops, due to insufficient local rainfall, has been so extensive as to require relief operations on the part of the authorities. In the latter year £20,000 was expended on this account. These occurrences, however, are so rare that no system of irrigation works or embankments has ever been thought desirable; and the means of communication are now sufficiently ample to prevent local scarcity from intensifying into famine. If the price of rice were to rise in January to 8s. 2d. per cwt., that should be regarded as a sign of approaching distress.

Manufactures, etc.—The people make a great portion of their own cloth, mats, baskets, etc. within their own families. The only special industries are the weaving of a strong silk from worms fed on the castor-oil plant, and of a coarse jute cloth, used for screens and bedding. An artisans' school has recently been established at Kuch Behar town, and several skilled workmen have been engaged by the State to teach their trades.

The external trade of the State is annually on the increase. Its conduct is chiefly in the hands of Márwárí immigrants from the North-West. The system of registration at Sirájganj unfortunately fails to record the entire river traffic of Kuch Behar. The returns for the year 1876–77 (the latest year for which full details are available) show a total export valued at £152,683, against imports valued at only

£55,837. The chief articles of export were jute (166,200 *maunds*), tobacco (159,300 *maunds*), oils (£8833), timber (£7281); the imports were almost entirely confined to salt (47,500 *maunds*), sugar (£10,400), piece-goods (£4420). The explanation of the disproportionately low figures of importation is to be found in the circumstance, that the supplies are mainly received from Sirájganj, whence they are re-consigned after having once passed the registration station. The principal marts are—Chaorá Hát, which exported 50,000 *maunds* of jute and 22,400 of tobacco, and received 6800 of salt; Kuch Behar town, which exported 15,400 *maunds* of jute and 34,200 of tobacco, and received 8500 of salt; Balrámpur, which exported 47,300 *maunds* of jute and received 8100 of salt. The amount of jute exported has greatly increased of late, since the opening of the Northern Bengal State Railway, the Haldibárí station of which is situated within the State, and is rapidly becoming an important centre of trade for jute and other country produce. The present (1883) export of jute probably approaches 400,000 *maunds*.

A small but effective Public Works Department has been instituted within the last few years. In 1874 there were about 115 miles of unmetalled roads in the State, with numerous good wooden bridges; and 'thousands of carts are now found where only tens and scores used to be seen.' There are now (1883) 271 miles of road in the State, all of them bridged, excepting where they cross the larger rivers. The roads in the town of Kuch Behar and its vicinity are many of them metalled. The system of roads is mainly designed to bring all parts of the country into easy communication with the Tístá and the Brahmaputra, the two water highways of this region; the total cost of maintenance is £2000 to £2500 per annum. A railway from Kuch Behar to join the branch line of the Northern Bengal Railway at Kauniá in Rangpur District is projected, and the Haldibárí station of the main line of that railway is just within the western limits of the State.

Administration.—In 1870–71, the net revenue of Kuch Behar State amounted to £112,093, towards which the land-tax contributed £40,896, and the *zamíndárí* estates in British territory £25,719; the net expenditure was returned at £120,279, including £13,903 for household expenses, £10,430 for public works, and an aggregate of £58,722 for 'land revenue' and *zamíndárí*. In 1881–82, the total revenue of the State from all sources (exclusive of the *zamíndárís* within British territory) amounted to £132,040, of which the land-tax yielded £96,486. The net expenditure during 1881–82 was £116,344, of which £30,944 was for the Mahárájá's household, £32,365 for public works, and £11,557 for Government tribute and land revenue. During the ten years from 1864, when a British Commissioner took charge of the administration on the death of the late Rájá up to 1874, the total

surplus revenue amounted to £150,000. Most of it was invested in public securities.

In 1883 there were 8 criminal and 11 revenue and civil courts open. For police purposes, the State is divided into 6 *thánás* or police circles. In 1881–82, the regular police force numbered 300 officers and men, maintained at a total cost of £4215. These figures show 1 policeman to every 4·3 square miles of the area, or to every 2008 persons in the population; and an average cost of £3, 4s. 6d. per square mile, and $1\frac{2}{3}$d. per head of population. The system of village watch has been gradually introduced, and there are now 1701 *chaukídárs*. The force has been in all respects assimilated to that of the surrounding villages. In 1874, 2674 criminal cases were instituted, in which 2614 persons were brought to trial, of whom 1748, or 66 per cent., were convicted, showing 1 person convicted of an offence to every 304 of the population. Out of property to the value of £770 reported to be stolen, £209, or 27 per cent., was recovered. There is one jail at Kuch Behar town. In 1874, the aggregate number of prisoners was 1324, of whom 34 were females; the average cost per head was £4, 13s. 4d., and the net profit from jail manufactures amounted to £478.

Education has extended rapidly during recent years. In 1874 there were 245 schools, attended by 6495 pupils, showing 1 school to every 5·3 square miles, and 1 pupil to every 82 of the population. The high school, with 176 students, has won many scholarships in the colleges of Bengal. The artisan school, or technical institution for the lower classes, is attended by 39 pupils. There is a good library of English literature in Kuch Behar town, and also a State printing-press. An official Gazette called *Cooch Behar State Gazette* is published every fortnight at the State Press.

The administration of Kuch Behar State is carried on by the Mahárájá, assisted by a council, consisting of three members, namely, the Superintendent of the State, the Diwán or chief revenue officer, and the Civil Judge. The Mahárájá is the President of the Council, and in his absence the Superintendent of the State acts as Vice-President.

The Superintendent of the State supervises, directs, and controls the administration of criminal justice, and the police, military, jail, public works, education, and audit departments. He is also Sessions Judge, hearing all criminal appeals which ordinarily lie to Sessions Judges in British Districts.

The Diwán is in charge of the revenue department, and is responsible for the collection of all kinds of revenue, and the supervision of all proceedings in connection therewith. He does not exercise any judicial powers. Appeals from the decisions of his subordinates in

rent suits lie to the Civil Court; but he hears appeals from their orders in revenue executive matters, such as sales for arrears, mutation cases, etc.

The Judicial Member of Council hears all civil and revenue appeals in which the subject-matter of the suit exceeds Rs. 100 in value in Small Cause Court cases, and Rs. 50 in other cases. In addition, he tries original civil and rent suits, in which the value exceeds Rs. 500.

The following appeals lie to the Council—(1) Appeals from sentences passed by the Sessions Court; (2) Civil appeals, both on the facts and on points of law, from the Judicial Member in original suits; (3) Special appeals on law points only, in other civil and revenue cases. Sentences of death are confirmed by the Mahárájá in Council in every case. The three Members of Council are independent of each other.

The officers subordinate to the Superintendent of the State are—(1) The *Faujdárí Ahilkár*, or Magistrate, who exercises the powers of a first-class Magistrate in British Districts. He is assisted by subordinate Magistrates, who exercise second and third class powers; (2) The Superintendent of Education, who has under him a Deputy and a Sub-Deputy Superintendent; (3) The Superintendent of Police, with his staff of inspectors and sub-inspectors; (4) The Superintendent of Public Works, with a subordinate staff of assistant superintendents, overseers, and sub-overseers. The Diwán, or chief revenue officer, is assisted by an officer styled *Mál-kachharí Naib Ahilkár*, who has also the charge of the treasury. There are four administrative Sub-divisions in the State, each presided over by an officer styled *Naib Ahilkár*, whose duties are analogous to those of sub-divisional officers in British Districts.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of Kuch Behar is damp and malarious, but not so hot as in other parts of Bengal. The wind sets much from the east, and thunderstorms are common from March to May. The rainy season lasts from April to October. Fogs are common during the cold weather in the early mornings. The average annual rainfall is returned at 123 inches. During the year 1874, the highest temperature recorded at 10 A.M. was 92·5° F., in the month of June; the lowest at 4 P.M. was 49·1°, in January.

The chief diseases are malarious fevers, dysentery, diarrhœa, splenitis, and goitre. Cholera appears to be endemic to the country, and occasionally breaks out with great epidemic violence. Small-pox is now disappearing before the introduction of vaccination. In 1870, the total number of patients treated at the charitable dispensary was 5973, the proportion of deaths to patients treated being 31 per thousand.

Kuch Behar.—Capital of Kuch Behar State and the principal residence of the Mahárájá; situated on the Torsha river. Lat. 26° 19′ 36″ N., long. 89° 28′ 53″ E. Population (1872) 7145; (1881) 9535. Hindus

numbered in the latter year 6119; Muhammadans, 3337; and 'others,' 79. Area of town site, 1309 acres. The town until recently consisted of a congeries of mat huts surrounding the brick mansion which formed the residence of the Mahárájá. Great improvements have, however, been effected within the last few years, and others have been introduced and energetically proceeded with since the Mahárájá assumed the direct management of the State on attaining his majority in 1883. The principal square has been surrounded on three sides with handsome public buildings. In the centre of the square is a large tank called the Ságar-dighi, which affords good drinking water to nearly all the population. On the north side of the square stands the Mahárájá's court-house and attached offices, a two-storied building of imposing appearance. On the east are the English and vernacular schools, printing-office, and State record rooms. To the south the subordinate civil and criminal courts occupy a fine building, containing four large court-rooms and other smaller offices. The old market-place has been recently cleared of mat huts, and a quadrangular market-place with a corrugated iron roof and brick floor has been constructed. An excellent dispensary and hospital has also been built. The principal street passing through the *bázár* now contains hardly a single mat hut, and corrugated iron has taken the place of straw as roofing. The other public buildings are the post-office, jail, police station, and artisans' schools, located in suitable masonry buildings. A new palace, a splendid building, has just been constructed as a residence for the Mahárájá at a cost of about 12 *lákhs* of rupees (£120,000).

The trade is not large, and the few Márwárí merchants confine their dealings mainly to export traffic. The two small streams, both called Torshá, which encircle the town on three sides, are navigable only during the rainy season. For the rest of the year, the sole means of communication is by land. The main line of road from Rangpur to Jalpáigurí passes through the town. A municipality, consisting of official and non-official members, has lately been established.

Kuchla Bijná.—Town in Hardoi District, Oudh; situated on the right bank of the Rámgangá river, 4 miles above its confluence with the Ganges. Population (1869) 2104; (1881) 1612, chiefly Raikwárs, who obtained the village by conquest from the Thatheras.

Kúchmala.—Hill in Palghát *táluk*, Malabar District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 10° 33′ N., long. 76° 55′ E.; about 4000 feet above sea-level. A well-defined, pinnacle-shaped peak, terminating the Kollangod range. Contains some splendid teak. Inhabited by the hill tribe of Kurders.

Kudalúr.—*Táluk* and town in South Arcot District, Madras Presidency.—*See* CUDDALORE.

Kudalúr.—Pass in Travancore State, Madras Presidency.—*See* GUDALUR.

Kudarimukh.—Mountain in the Western Gháts, Bombay Presidency.—*See* KUDUREMUKHA.

Kudarkot.—Village and ruins in Bidhauna *tahsíl*, Etáwah District, North-Western Provinces. Lies on the Etáwah and Kanauj road, 24 miles north-east of Etáwah town. Population (1872) 2567; (1881) 3459, namely, Hindus 2709, and Muhammadans 750. Probably a place of great importance in the days of the Gupta kings. Tradition asserts that an underground passage connected Kudarkot with Kanauj. The houses of the modern village are built of bricks dug out of the ancient mound. Miyán Almás Alí Khán, minister of Nawáb Asaf-ud-daulá, held court at Kudarkot, and built a fort with 16 bastions on the site of the prehistoric stronghold. Disused after the British occupation, it now serves in part for the factory of an indigo planter, in part for a police station and village school. An inscription of the 11th century has been found among the ruins.

Kuddána.—State in Rewá Kántha Province, Gujarát (Guzerát), Bombay Presidency. The chief is Thákur Parvat Singhjí, born about 1822. The area of the State is 130 square miles. The revenue is estimated at £1400. The State pays no tribute.

Kuditini.—Town in Bellary District, Madras Presidency. Population (1881) 3944; number of houses, 768. The first stage on the Dhárwár road, and formerly sacred as the halting-place of Komaraswámi on his expedition against the Rákshasas. Remains of a fort and of a Jain settlement.

Kudligi.—*Táluk* in Bellary District, Madras Presidency. Area, 838 square miles (536,595 acres). Population (1881) 74,690, namely, 37,226 males and 37,464 females, inhabiting 15,086 houses. Hindus number 72,469; Muhammadans, 2181; Christians, 6; 'others,' 34. The area under actual cultivation in 1871 was 124,428 acres. Three-quarters of the *táluk* are waste. There are 70 miles of made road. Chief towns are Kudligi (2977), Kottúr (5156), and Jerimála. The *táluk* contains 2 criminal courts and 9 police stations; regular police, 63 men. Land revenue, £9046.

Kuduremukha (literally '*Horse-face*').—Peak of the Western Gháts, on the boundary between Kadúr District, Mysore State, and the Madras District of South Kánara. Lat. 13° 8′ N., long. 75° 20′ E.; 6215 feet above sea-level. The name is said to be derived from its appearance as a conspicuous landmark to sailors. It can be ascended from the west by a bridle-path. On the summit a bungalow has been erected as a summer retreat for the Malabar officials, and another has recently been built by the missionaries of the Basel Evangelical Mission.

Kuhan.—River in the Punjab.—*See* KAHAN.

Kuhlur.—State in the Punjab.—*See* KAHLUR.

Kukdel.—Town in the Sháháda Sub-division of Khándesh District, Bombay Presidency, included within the municipal limits of Sháháda (*q.v.*) town. The population of Kukdel itself in 1881 was 1217; the houses numbered 202.

Kúki. — A family of wild tribes inhabiting hilly country on the north-east frontier of India, extending along the southern border of the Assam District of Cachar, the eastern borders of the Bengal District of Chittagong, the hilly tracts of Northern Arakan, and stretching away into the unexplored mountains of Independent Burma.—*See* LUSHAI HILLS.

Kukra Mailáni.—*Parganá* in Lakhimpur *tahsíl*, Kheri District, Oudh; lying between the Kathna river on the west and the Ul on the east; bounded on the north by Bhúr, and on the south by Haidarábád *parganás*. A jungle tract, containing three large clearings—one to the south, Saukhia Sansárpur; one to the north-east, Kukra; and a third to the extreme north-west, Mailáni. Most of the forest or upland area, amounting to 126 square miles, was made over to grantees under the lease rules, but they all failed to comply with the conditions of their grants, which have since been resumed and transferred to the Oudh Forest Department. The revenue-paying tract, 51 square miles, consists mainly of the basins of three or four ancient lakes, into which the high lands drained.

The aspect of these mere pits in the surface of the forest is very peculiar. The largest (Kukra) may be taken as a type of all: a flat plain about seven miles long and four broad, covered with rice-fields and prairies of long coarse grass, through which breast-high the foot-passenger moves with difficulty in pursuit of the game which lies concealed in herds. A few mango groves adjoin the mud-walled villages. Here and there a slight depression allows the rain-water to gather in stagnant marshes. All round the horizon the traveller sees the high bluffs—once the shores of this inland sea—rising crowned with a ring of lofty and dense *sál* forest. This wall of verdure is only broken at places where it has been levelled to make room for the roads which pass through the plain, piercing the forest towards Gola and Bhira.

Rice is the principal crop in these clearings, but barley and gram have been sown largely of late years. The want of means of carriage alone prevents a large trade springing up in timber. Population (1868) 12,236; (1881) 14,641, of whom 2511 are Muhammadans, principally Patháns; 12,125 Hindus; and 5 'others.' Land revenue, £945. The proprietary body was formerly Ahban, but many of them have now lost all their possessions. Ahban Musalmáns, however, still hold 19 of the 40 townships comprising the *parganá*, 13 being held by Rájputs.

Kuláchi.—Western *tahsíl* of Dera Ismáil Khán District, Punjab;

consisting of the wild country immediately below the independent Suláimán mountains, stretching in its extreme southern portion to the west bank of the Indus. Lat. 30° 57′ 30″ to 32° 16′ N., and long. 70° 14′ to 70° 45′ E. Area, 1513 square miles, with 111 towns and villages, and 14,172 houses. Population (1881) 70,950, namely, males 37,763, and females 33,187; average density of population, 47 persons per square mile. Number of families, 15,942. Classified according to religion, Muhammadans numbered 62,614; Hindus, 8170; and Sikhs, 166. Of the total area of 1513 square miles or 968,400 acres, 238,618 acres were returned as under cultivation in 1878–79, in the last quinquennial agricultural statistics of the Punjab Government. The uncultivated area comprised 8771 acres of grazing land, 588,159 acres of cultivable waste, and 132,852 acres of uncultivable waste. Revenue of the *tahsíl*, £4673. The administrative staff consists of a *tahsíldár*, a *munsif*, and an honorary magistrate. These officers preside over 3 civil and 2 criminal courts. The *tahsíl* contains 3 *tahsíls* or police circles, a regular police of 77 men, and a village watch of 122 *chaukídárs*.

Kuláchi.—Chief town and head-quarters of Kuláchi *tahsíl*, Dera Ismáil Khán District, Punjab. Situated in lat. 31° 55′ 38″ N., long. 70° 30′ 19″ E., on the left bank of the Luní, 27 miles north-west of Dera Ismáil Khán town, and 24 miles south of Tank. Population (1868) 9921; (1881) 7834, namely, 2461 Hindus, 5310 Muhammadans, and 63 Sikhs; number of houses, 1336. Kuláchi is rather an aggregation of 16 separate hamlets standing at the point of union in their lands, than a regular town. Surrounded by a low mud wall; scattered houses, 30 mosques, 5 *dharmsálas*. Formerly carried on a brisk trade with the Wazíris of the hills, which declined before annexation, but has since somewhat revived. Transit trade to Ghwalári Pass. *Tahsíli*, police station, dispensary, school, travellers' bungalow. A third-class municipality, with an income in 1880–81 of £536; expenditure, £551.

Kú-la-dan.—River of Arakan, British Burma. Supposed to rise in the neighbourhood of the Blue Mountain, a peak in the Yoma range. After a course generally north and south, it falls into the Bay of Bengal at Akyab town, where it is called by Europeans the 'Arakan river,' but by the inhabitants of the country 'Gat-sa-ba.' Before the Kú-la-dan leaves the hills, it is fed by numerous tributaries, the two largest being the Mí from the east and the Pí from the west; its banks are inhabited by hillmen. It is navigable by vessels of from 300 to 400 tons burden for nearly 50 miles. Its mouth forms a large harbour with good holding ground, protected from the south-west monsoon by the Borongo islands. On Savage Island, at the entrance to the harbour, stands a lighthouse, erected in 1842. The entrance is dangerous and difficult at low tide,

there being then a depth of barely 3½ fathoms, much reduced when a rolling swell sets in.

Kú-la-dan.—Township in the north of Akyab District, Arakan Division, British Burma. It adjoins the Hill Tracts, and is divided into 13 revenue circles. Except to the south, the country is hilly, forest-clad, and but little cultivated. The township contains 294 villages. The area under cultivation (1881–82) is 40,880 acres, mostly under rice. Agricultural stock:—Horned cattle, 25,768; pigs, 2550; goats, 805; ploughs, 5901; carts, 1237; and boats, 1095. The head-quarters of the township are on the right bank of the Kú-la-dan river, near the Mahá-múní temple. Population (1881) 38,896; gross revenue, £11,979; of which land revenue contributed £7716, capitation-tax £3488, and local cess £738.

Kulaghát.—Village and head-quarters of a police circle in Rangpur District, Bengal; situated on the right bank of the Dharla river. An important trading mart; principal articles of export—jute, tobacco, and ginger.

Kulasekharapatnam.—Town and seaport in Tenkarái *táluk*, Tinnevelli District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 9° 4′ 40″ N., long. 77° 31′ 20″ E. Population (1881) 14,972, namely, 6548 males and 8424 females; number of houses, 3823. Hindus numbered 7182; Muhammadans, 3572; Christians, 4218. One of the trade centres of the District. Imports (1880–81), £16,828; exports, £55,030.

Kulbarga (or *Gulbarga*).—Chief town of the Kulbarga District of Haidarábád State (Nizam's Dominions); situated on an undulating plain, which presents a somewhat dreary expanse of black soil. Population (1881) 22,834. The former capital of a powerful dynasty, it has now become a place of secondary importance. In early times it was a Hindu city of great extent. Previous to the Muhammadan conquest, Kulbarga was included in the dominions of the Rájás of Warangal. After the subjugation of the Zadavás of Deogiri (Daulatábád) by the Muhammadans, other inroads followed which resulted in the overthrow of the Hindu kingdom of Warangal. In 1323, Prince Alagh Khán (afterwards the emperor Muhammad Tughlak), who was deputed by his father, Ghází Beg Tughlak, to suppress a rebellion that had broken out in the southern portions of the kingdom, captured Kulbarga and Bídar. Twenty years afterwards the Deccan governors rebelled against the emperor Muhammad Tughlak, and set up a king of their own. Málik Magh, the nominee of the rebels, abdicated in favour of Jafar Khán, who assumed the title of Ala-ud-din Hasan Sháh Gangu Báhmani. He selected Kulbarga as his capital, and commenced to reign in 1347. The new king rapidly extended his dominions, which were subsequently divided into four great provinces. In 1432, the capital was transferred to Bídar. Towards

the close of the fifteenth century, Kulbarga came into the possession of the kings of Bijápur.

During the last ten or twelve years much has been done to restore to Kulbarga some of its former prosperity. The south-eastern extension of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway has a station near the town. Between the railway station and the old town, plantations of trees have been laid out. A handsome garden and many new buildings also adorn the town. Kulbarga is entered by a stately gateway recently erected. In the jail the manufacture of carpets, both of the finer and coarser kinds, of soda-water and lemonade, of tents, and of paper, together with cloth-weaving, is carried on by 400 convicts.

After the abandonment of Kulbarga for Bídar, the palaces and mosques, which had been erected by the kings who ruled there, were allowed to fall into ruin and decay. The outer walls and gateways of the old fort are now in a dilapidated condition. A citadel, or Bálá Hissár, has suffered the least. The only remarkable building in the fort is the great mosque or masjid, modelled after the mosque of Cordova in Spain. Its chief peculiarity is that, alone among the larger mosques of India, the whole area of 38,016 square feet is covered in. Nothing but heaps of ruin remain of the palaces and pleasure-houses of the Báhmani kings.

Kulik.—River of Dinájpur District, Bengal. The principal tributary of the NAGAR. It takes its rise in a marsh in the police circle (*thándá*) of Thákurgáon, and, after running for 36 miles through the *thánás* of Ránísankáil, Pírganj, and Hemtábád, falls into the Nágar in lat. 25° 34′ N., and long. 88° 5′ E., at Goráhár village, near the point where the latter river joins the Mahánandá. The important jute mart of RAIGANJ is situated on the Kulik.

Kulitalái.—*Táluk* in Trichinopoli District, Madras Presidency. Area, 941 square miles. Population (1881) 201,990, namely, 97,382 males and 104,608 females. Number of villages, 249; houses, 41,666. Hindus number 187,180; Muhammadans, 6513; Christians, 8295; 'others,' 2. Villages of considerable size are—Nangavaram (4465), Mahádánapuram (6191), and Kristnaráyapuram (3233). The *táluk* contains 1 civil and 2 criminal courts; police stations (*thánás*), 12; regular police, 86 men. Land revenue (1883), £22,726.

Kulitalái.—Town in Kulitalái *táluk*, Trichinopoli District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 10° 56′ N., long. 78° 27′ E.; situated on the banks of the Káveri (Cauvery). Population (1881) 1459; number of houses, 296. Head-quarters of the *táluk*, and a station on the Erode branch of the South Indian Railway.

Kúllár.—Village in Nílgiri Hills District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 11° 20′ N., long. 70° 56′ E. Although it belongs to Nílgiri District, Kúllár lies low, being the *dák* (post) station (5 miles from the railway

terminus at Mettapolliem), where the ascent of the Kunúr (Coonoor) *ghát* begins.

Kullu.—Valley and Sub-division of Kángra District, Punjab. *See* KULU.

Kulpahár (also called *Panwárí-Jáitpur*, from the name of the two *parganás* comprising it).—Southern *tahsíl* of Hamírpur District, North-Western Provinces, consisting of part of the hilly and rocky southern border of the District. Area, 558 square miles, of which 309 are cultivated. Population (1872) 123,911; (1881) 125,578, namely, males 64,468, and females 61,110. Total increase of population in the 9 years, 1667, or 1·3 per cent. Classified according to religion, there were, in 1881—Hindus, 119,931, and Muhammadans, 5647. Of the 233 villages constituting the *tahsíl*, 153 contained less than five hundred inhabitants. Land revenue, £17,852; total Government revenue, £21,110; rental paid by cultivators, £32,671; incidence of Government revenue, 1s. per acre.

Kulpahár.—Town in Hamírpur District, North-Western Provinces, and head-quarters of Kulpahár *tahsíl*; situated in lat. 25° 19′ 10″ N., and long. 79° 39′ 40″ E., in the southern hill country; distant from Hamírpur town 60 miles south. Population (1872) 6044; (1881) 6066, namely, 5294 Hindus and 772 Muhammadans. Founded by Jagatrájá, son of the great Bundela leader, Chhatar Sál, and Rájá of Jáitpur. Each of Jagatrájá's sons built himself a mansion in the town, the ruins of which still exist. Kesri Singh also erected the Toriya fort, whose remains still stand. Large tanks, built by the Bundela Rájás. *Tahsíli*, police station, school, *sarái*, unpretentious mosques and temples. Trade in grain, cotton, and the *al* dye. A specially good variety of cotton is grown in, and named from, the locality. The town was a centre of local disaffection during the Mutiny.

Kulsi.—River of Assam, formed by the junction of the Khri and Um-gin streams in the Khási Hills. The united stream flows north into Kámrúp District, and, after a very winding course, which changes year by year, finally falls into the Brahmaputra, in lat. 26° 9′ N., and long. 91° 22′ E., near the Nagarbera hill on the south bank of that river. In the plains it is navigable by native boats during the greater part of the year. On its banks in Kámrúp District are several valuable forests of *sál* trees, under the protection of the Forest Department. The timber depôt is at Kukurmárá, at the crossing of the trunk road. A portion of the river is leased annually as a fishery.

Kulsi. — Forest reserve and experimental plantation in Kámrúp District, Assam; on the right or west bank of the river of the same name, immediately north of the Bardwár reserve. Area, 3520 acres, or 5·5 square miles. The surface soil is a sandy loam covered with vegetable mould, resting upon granitoid rock, much decomposed.

There are several marshy tracts, inundated during the rains. About 2 square miles are covered with *sál* (Shorea robusta), which it is intended to preserve. The remainder is being gradually planted experimentally with teak (Tectona grandis), *sissu* (Dalbergia Sissoo), *tún* (Cedrela Toona), *nahor* (Mesua ferrea), *súm* (Machilus odoratissima); and all the land not suitable for timber trees is to be planted with caoutchouc or india-rubber (Ficus elastica). At the close of the year 1882, 168 acres had been planted with teak, 20 acres with *sissu*, 101 acres with caoutchouc, and 2 acres with bamboo.

Kulsia.—Native State, Punjab.—*See* KALSIA.

Kúlu.—Eastern *tahsíl* or Sub-division of Kángra District, Punjab. Lat. 31° 20′ to 33° N., and long. 76° 49′ to 78° 35′ E.; comprises the three *táluks* or cantons of KULU, LAHUL, and SPITI, each of which see separately. Area of the Sub-division, 6344 square miles, of which only 67 square miles were returned as under cultivation in 1878. Population (1881) 108,981, namely, males 54,546, and females 54,435, living in 67 villages, and occupying 20,576 houses. Number of families, 22,342. Classified according to religion, Hindus numbered 105,493; Buddhists, 2860; Muhammadans, 547; Christians, 74; and Sikhs, 7. The average density of the population throughout the whole Sub-division is 17 persons per square mile, varying from 1 person per square mile in Spiti to 3 in Láhul, and to 52 in Kúlu *táluk*. Nearly the whole of what little cultivation there is, is confined to Kúlu Proper. The Assistant Commissioner of Kúlu has his head-quarters at NAGAR on the Beas (Biás). The subordinate officials include—the *tahsíldár* of Kúlu, whose head-quarters are at Sultánpur; the *náib tahsíldár* of Seoráj, whose head-quarters are at Plách; the *negi*, or head-man of Láhul; and the *nono* of Spiti. These officers preside over 3 civil and 3 criminal courts; strength of regular police, 20 men, with 33 village watchmen or *chaukídárs*. Revenue of the Sub-division, £5598. For further information, see the following article, KULU valley, and also KANGRA District.

Kúlu.—A valley and *táluk* of Kángra District, Punjab, lying between 31° 20′ and 32° 26′ N. lat., and between 76° 58′ 30″ and 77° 49′ 45″ E. long. Bounded on the north-east and east by the Central Himálayan range, dividing it from Láhul and Spiti; on the south by the river Sutlej (Satlaj); on the south-west by the Dháoladhar or Outer Himálayan range, the river Beas (Biás) and the Native States of Suket and Mandi; and on the west by the Bará Bangáhal Hills, which separate Kulu from the Bangáhal valley. Area, 1934 square miles; population (1881) 108,981 persons.

Physical Aspects.—The river Sainj, which rises in the Mid-Himálayan range, joining the Beas (Biás) at Lárgi, divides the tract into two portions, Kulu Proper and Seoráj. The latter division, lying between

the Sainj and the Sutlej (Satlaj), is again separated into Outer and Inner Seoráj by the Jalorior Suket range. Kulu Proper, to the north of the Sainj, together with Inner Seoráj, forms a great basin or depression in the midst of the Himálayan systems, having the narrow gorge of the Beas at Lárjí as the only outlet for its waters. North and east, the Bará Bangáhal and Mid-Himálayan ranges rise to a mean elevation of 18,000 feet; while southward, the Jalori and Dháoladhar ridges attain the height of 11,000 feet. Within the basin thus defined, short but lofty buttresses of rock encroach upon the central area, leaving only a few rare patches of cultivable land between their barren and snow-clad summits. The greater portion must consequently ever remain an utter wilderness. The higher villages stand 9000 feet above the sea; and even the cultivated tracts have probably an average elevation of 5000 feet.

The Beas (Biás), which, with its tributaries, drains the entire basin, rises at the crest of the Rohtang Pass, 13,326 feet above the sea, and has an average fall of 125 feet per mile, although in the lower part of its course through Kúlu, its average fall does not probably exceed 62 feet per mile. The principal tributaries of the Beas are on the right bank, the Solang or Beash-khand, the Manáli and the Sarwari; on the left bank the Raini, the Parbati (with its affluent the Malána), the Hural, the Sainj or Lárji, and the Tirthan. The Beas is bridged by a steel rope suspension bridge at Shamsi, and by wooden bridges at five other places. Its course presents a succession of magnificent scenery, including cataracts, gorges, precipitous cliffs, and mountains clad with forests of pine, towering above the tiers of *deodár* on the lower rocky ledges.

The general appearance of the country is very different from that of Kángra Proper. There are no low hills; at every point, before and behind, high mountains rise up at no great distance, and shut in the view. The lower slopes are dotted here and there with villages, not the scattered houses so common in Kángra, but groups of houses standing as close together as the ground will admit. Some are tower-shaped, four storeys high, with but one room to each storey. The sloping roof of stone or wooden slabs with far projecting eaves, and the wooden verandahs thrown out round the upper storey, and adorned with carved work, have a very picturesque appearance. The lower storey is occupied by the cattle and sheep and goats; and consequently, instead of the fresh-plastered walls and clean-swept court-yards to be seen in the low hills, there is as much mud and mess round the houses as in a farm-yard in England. Round the villages are terraced fields, planted here and there with walnut and apricot trees, and fringed with belts of *khársú* or *morú*, evergreen oaks whose leaves are used for winter fodder; mixed up with the fields, and separating them from those of the next village,

are slopes of steep grass and strips of *kail* pine and *deodár* cedar forest.

Above the villages, wherever there is some soil and not too much sun, dark forests of *reh* and *tos* pines, lit up here and there with patches of maple or horse chestnut, spread along the upper slopes, and are succeeded again by straggling woods of stunted oak, birch, and white rhododendron. Rounded grassy summits or bare ridges of rock crown the whole; and here and there, up a valley, or through an opening in the mountains, a glimpse is caught of the peaks and perpetual snows of the great ranges of which the mountains on which the villages stand are spurs and offshoots. This is the summer aspect of the country; in the winter the ground is covered with snow for two or three days, or for months together, according to situation. Snow does not usually lie long at heights of less than 6000 feet.

In the valley of the Beas the mountains stand back on either side for a distance of one or two miles; and fine plateaux run down with a gentle slope from their bases to the banks of the river. These plateaux are the garden of Kúlu. They are closely and carefully cultivated, and watered by canals brought from the mountain gorges. The river banks are high cliffs hung with bush and creeper. Between them the river winds from side to side, now deep and smooth, now foaming down rocky rapids in channels fringed with alder, and through meadows and marshes dotted with ash and poplar. Here and there wooded islands break the stream into several branches. This part of the country is remarkably beautiful, and has gained for the Kúlu valley the reputation of being the prettiest part of the British Himálayas. The minor rivers have no proper valley; the mountains rise abruptly from the very edge of the water.

Great mineral wealth exists in Kúlu, undeveloped as yet, among the isolated glens, but the isolation of the country and the difficulty of transport and labour must for long prevent its proper development. In the tract known as Wazírí Rúpi, veins of silver, copper, and lead have been discovered, and in 1869 a monopoly of working the mines in this tract was granted to an English private gentleman. His proceedings, however, were not attended with any marked success, and the lease was cancelled in 1883. Negotiations with other English capitalists for a fresh lease are now (1884) in progress. In the valley of the upper Beas, various lodes have been discovered; and traces of a very pure white crystal, and of antimony, have been met with at Jagat Sukh on the Beas. Slate of a very fair quality is obtainable throughout Kúlu, the better descriptions being found at Sultánpur. Several hot springs exist, much resorted to as places of pilgrimage, and for bathing purposes by persons suffering from rheumatism and skin diseases. The best

known of these springs are at Mánikarn in the valley of the Párbatí, and at Basisht and Kalát on the banks of the Beas.

Forests occupy a considerable portion of Kúlu below the snow line. The finest *deodár* forests are those of the upper Beas and the Párbatí, where they lie low in the valley near the water's edge. Higher up on the hill-side the forests are more dense, the principal timber trees being the *reh* or *rai* (Abies Smithiana), the *tos* (Abies Webbiana), and several kinds of oak. Horse chestnut, maple, birch, yew, walnut, and rhododendron are also very common. In the valleys, Himálayan poplar and alder are found. Walnut, apricot, and quince trees are much planted in fields surrounding the villages.

The fauna of Kúlu is rich, and includes two species of bear, the black and brown; and two species of leopard, the common spotted and the white. Ibex and musk deer are found in the hills. The other animals include the hyæna, wild hog, jackal, fox, marten, wild cat, and flying squirrel. Several species of hill pheasant abound, but the *munál* and argus pheasants, so prized for their plumage, are only procurable in the highest ranges. The white-crested pheasant, the *koklas*, and the *chír*, with red jungle-fowl, black and wood partridge, and *chikor* are common in the lower hills; snipe, woodcock, teal, and quail are tolerably abundant in the lower grass ground. In winter, the *gohind* or snow pheasant, and the snow partridge, can be obtained without difficulty, as also wild geese and duck. Eagles, vultures, kites, and hawks inhabit the upper fastnesses.

History.—The little principality of Kúlu formed one of the eleven original Rájput States between the Rávi and the Sutlej, and probably belonged to some of the minor Katoch dynasties, offshoots from the great kingdom of JALANDHAR (Jullundur). Hiuen Tsiang, the Chinese Buddhist pilgrim, visited it in the 7th century; and local legends preserve the names of 87 princes who ruled successively in this remote mountain valley. Authentic history, however, first recognises Kúlu in the 15th century, when Rájá Sudh Singh ascended the throne, whom tradition places 74th in descent from the original founder of the dynasty. His descendants ruled the valley till the beginning of the present century, their annals being wholly confined to the usual Indian record of court intrigues, assassinations, and dynastic quarrels. When the Gúrkhas broke out from their home in Nepál, and conquered all the country up to the banks of the Sutlej, they found Bikráma Singh upon the throne of Kúlu. Like the other neighbouring chieftains, Bikráma Singh paid tribute to the invaders for his cis-Sutlej territory, as well as to Sansár Chand, the Katoch prince of KANGRA, for Kúlu itself. In 1809, however, Ranjít Singh, called in by Sansár Chand, made himself master of the hills, and obtained tribute from the young Rájá of Kúlu, Ajít Singh, an illegitimate son of Bikráma Singh.

Three years later, the Sikhs demanded an annual payment of £5000; and on the Rájá's refusal, marched upon his capital of Sultánpur and sacked his palace. Ajít Singh at length bribed the Sikhs to withdraw, by paying them all the money he could collect. After the expulsion of the Gúrkhas, the Rájá became a feudatory of the British for the cis-Sutlej tract. In 1839, General Ventura led a Sikh force against the neighbouring State of Mandi; after conquering which, one of his lieutenants attacked Kúlu, on the pretext of hostile dispositions. The Rájá made no resistance, and allowed himself to be taken prisoner; but the brutal discourtesy shown him by his captors roused the hereditary loyalty of the hillmen. A secret muster took place; and as the invaders marched out of Seoráj by the Basleo Pass, the hillmen fell upon them in a narrow ravine, rescued their prince, and massacred the Sikhs almost to a man.

Ajít Singh retired across the Sutlej to his fief of Shángri, which he held from the British Government since the expulsion of the Gúrkhas; and so placed himself beyond reach of vengeance from Lahore. A Sikh army soon after marched into Seoráj, but found it completely deserted, the inhabitants having fled into inaccessible forests on the mountain-sides. Accordingly they handed over the country in farm to the Rájá of Mandi, leaving a garrison in Kúlu to enforce their supremacy. Ajít Singh died at Shángri in 1841; and the Sikhs made over in part their portion of his former dominions to his first cousin, Thákur Singh, while Shángri remained in the hands of another relative. In 1846, at the close of the first Sikh war, the Jalandhar (Jullundur) Doáb, with the adjoining hill States, passed into the power of the British; and Kúlu, with Láhul and Spiti, became a *tahsíl* of the new Kángra District. The Government confirmed Thákur Singh in his title of Rájá, and in the territories which he then possessed. On his death in 1852, his son, Gyán Singh, of doubtful legitimacy, obtained the inferior title of Rái, with half the land, and no political powers. The resumed half has since been restored, with certain reservations in favour of Government.

Population.—The Census of 1881 returned the number of inhabitants at 100,259, spread over an area of 1934 square miles, distributed among 48 villages. The people are almost exclusively Hindus in religion, the ancient faith numbering 99,686 adherents, as against 522 Muhammadans and 7 Christians. The chief castes or tribes ranked as follows in numerical order in 1868:—Kanets, 52,836; Dágís, 26,495; and Bráhmans, 6615. The Census for 1881 does not return the population of Sub-divisions according to caste or tribe. The first-named tribe probably represents impure or degraded Rájputs. The Dágís are hill aborigines. The character of the hillmen resembles that of most other mountaineers in its mixture of simplicity, independence,

and superstition. Polyandry still prevails in Seoráj, but the custom is disappearing, and has almost died out elsewhere. It consists simply of a community of wives amongst brothers, who hold all their other goods in common, and regard their women as labourers on the farm. The temples usually occupy picturesque sites, and are dedicated rather to local deities than to the greater gods of the Hindu Pantheon. The language, though peculiar to the valley, belongs essentially to the Indian or Neo-Sanskritic family, having a basis of Urdu and Pahári, with an infusion of Tibetan vocables. The only place deserving the name of town is SULTANPUR, the former capital and modern head-quarters of Kúlu *táluk*, on the right bank of the Beas. NAGAR, also a capital of the native Rájás, possesses some interest from its fine old palace or castle, crowning an eminence, which rises above the Beas to the height of about 1000 feet. The castle has been recently restored, and is now the residence of the Assistant Commissioner in charge of Kúlu Sub-division.

The Plách or Kúlu Mission was founded by the Rev. Dr. Carleton of the American Presbyterian Mission in 1868, and for ten successive years he spent the hot season in Plách, engaging in medical work and preaching. In 1878 he purchased some land on the Kúlu side of the Sutlej basin, about ten miles from the river, and there founded a Christian village. Since then but little mission work has been done in Plách. The community of the new village now numbers 28 persons, all engaged in agriculture; and their example, under Dr. Carleton's guidance, has done something towards improving the simple agricultural practice of the neighbourhood. Four years ago a dispensary was built, and it has become so popular that a new and larger building is about to be erected.

Pasturage rights and customs.—Pasturage is the occupation of a considerable proportion of the population, independent of, or subsidiary to, cultivation. Some villages muster large flocks of sheep and goats. During the spring or up till about the middle of June, the sheep stay in the wastes round about the hamlets; they then move up into the grazing grounds (*gáhr*) in the forests above the limits of cultivation, and graze there promiscuously; which they leave in July for sheep-runs (*nigáhr*) on the grassy slopes above the limits of forest, where they stay, each flock in its own run, for two months or till the middle of September; they then descend again to the lower grounds, and graze in them for about six weeks or till November. Villages with only a few sheep and goats, generally winter their flocks in Kúlu at the bottom of the valleys; but large flocks are sent into Mandi State, where a *ban* or run is leased for the purpose from the Rájá.

A sort of hereditary title to or interest in each *nigáhr* is asserted by by some man or other. He is known as the *rású*, and bases his claim

upon a grant from the Rájás, but can rarely or ever produce a deed. Sometimes he is a resident of the village in which the *nigáhr* is situated; sometimes he is a man of a distant village in which there are probably no *nigáhr*, as the mountains are not high enough.

To each *nigáhr* is attached a certain number of grazing plots (*thách*) in the lower *gáhrs*; but when the flocks ascend in the spring, the *gáhrs* are free or open to all comers; the exclusive right to graze them arises when the flocks come down from the *nigáhrs* in September. These *nigáhrs* and *gáhrs* have tolerably definite boundaries, which are recognised by the shepherds, who hand down the knowledge of them among themselves. It is not easy to say to what the interest of a *rású* in a *nigáhr* and *gáhr* amounts. It is not in any sense a proprietorship of the soil; but rather an hereditary managership to be exercised in the *rású's* own interest and that of his neighbours than an exclusive right of grazing vested in one man or one family only. The *rású* in practice always forms his flock by collecting together all the sheep and goats of his own and neighbouring hamlets, and he takes nothing from the owners who accompany him in the shape of fee or due. It is doubtful whether he could give a preference to strangers, or to the people of other hamlets than those who have been accustomed to combine their flocks with his. But of late years the *rásús* have often dealt with their *nigáhrs* in a fashion not quite consistent with this theory of the limited nature of their rights; for instance, some of them who have lost their flocks and ceased to be shepherds, have given leave to other men to form flocks and go to their *nigáhrs* for the year, and have taken from them two or three rupees as a presentation fee. It appears, however, that the man so sent in place of a *rású* has ordinarily been one of his old companions who used to resort to the run in his company.

In the lowlands in and around the villages, the sheep graze promiscuously like the cattle. Ordinarily speaking, a flock belonging to a man of one hamlet would not be driven to graze in another, but within the village lands he may drive them where he likes, without reference to, or nearness, or the contrary, to his own hamlet; and in waste lands near the boundary of two villages, the neighbouring hamlets on both sides frequently have a common right of grazing. In some places the villages high up in the mountains have by custom a right to send their flocks to winter in the waste lands of those lower down, which are not so much exposed to frost and snowstorms.

In the times of the Rájás, and down to the Regular Settlement, a tax was levied on all sheep and goats in Kúlu at the rate of 1 *anna* per head per annum. This tax was on account of the grazing for the whole year, and therefore no special rents or dues were imposed on the *nigáhrs* or summer sheep-runs. It is said that something of the kind ought to be done again, as it now happens that the villages which

pay the least revenue graze the most sheep, and Government loses greatly by the absence of such an impost. Some temples exact a fee of a sheep or goat from the flock which resorts to certain runs in their neighbourhood, but this fee, though now claimed as a right, originated in the idea that the mountain in question was the peculiar haunt of the temple god who ought to be propitiated, and not in any grant to the temples by the Rájás. The numerous flocks from Simla territory, which spend the summer in Kúlu, formerly paid 1 *anna* per head for the summer grazing only. In the Wazírí Rúpí tract, these taxes both on native and foreign sheep are still collected by the Rájá; but since the first regular land settlement in 1852, even sheep from other Districts which resort to *nigáhrs* belonging to Government villages, have paid nothing. Nearly all the foreign sheep, however, go to Wazírí Rúpí, which contains the best *nigáhrs* in Kúlu.

By custom, the grazing of beasts of burden in waste lands alongside the high road is free to all traders or travellers on the march. In the winter and spring many are to be found encamped in the Beas valley. Shepherds can use any route they please when on the march to and from the summer pasture grounds, and halt a day or two, if necessary, anywhere in the waste. The shepherds from Kángra, before crossing the Hanta pass into Láhul, spend some days in the forests above Jagat Sukh.

Agriculture.—Out of a total area of State lands amounting to 799,834 acres, the revised settlement returns in 1872 show 762,467 acres unoccupied, as against 37,367 acres in occupation. Of the latter amount, 32,884 acres are under actual cultivation, the remainder being set down as waste or grass lands. The total area under crops, including 14,210 acres, yielding two harvests in the year, is returned at 37,110 acres. The above figures do not include the tract known as Wazírí Rúpí, which has a total area of 433,050 acres, and is alienated in *jagír* to the ex-ruling family. The average cultivated area for the five years ending 1881–82 is returned at 41,682 acres. Seven-eighths of the unoccupied waste lie above the limits of possible cultivation. The staple spring products include wheat, barley, poppy, tobacco, and oil-seeds; the autumn crops are maize, rice, pulses, and millets.

The average area under the principal crops for the five years ending 1881–82 is returned as under—wheat, 13,404 acres; barley, 7014 acres; Indian corn, 5666 acres; rice, 4707 acres; and poppy, 1456 acres. The poppy is a lucrative crop, and cultivators who have no rice lands rely upon it to pay their land revenue. Opium is but little used locally, although the poppy seed is freely eaten. The manufactured opium is bought up by traders for export to the plains, at a price varying from 6s. to 15s. per lb., the fluctuation in price depending less on the crop than on the influx of buyers. Rice, the most important of

the autumn crops, is grown wherever water is plentiful, its range being from 3600 to 7000 feet above sea-level.

The cultivation of tea has spread from Kángra Proper into Kúlu; but the area under cultivation is said to be less than 100 acres, and there seems to be very little land in the Kúlu valley well suited for the cultivation of tea. The quality of the leaf is excellent, but the out-turn is light. In the lower part of the main valley, the rainfall is very uncertain; while in the upper valley there is a sufficient rainfall, but hardly enough warmth. The land is often cold and marshy at a short depth below the surface; and a combination of a hot sun above, and cold water at the root, appears to kill the plant.

Irrigation is effected by small canals cut from the hill streams, as much as 19 per cent. of the cultivated area being artificially supplied with water in the greater part of Kúlu Proper.

The tenure of land has been largely assimilated to the ordinary Indian system, the whole artificial village, made up of separate hamlets, being held jointly responsible for the entire land revenue assessed upon it. At the time of the revised land settlement in 1872, there were 771 holdings with a total area of 567 acres held rent free in lieu of service, and 3943 holdings with a total area of 5494 acres held by tenants paying rent either in money or kind. The average area of each holding, three acres, seems very small, and the average Government assessment of Rs. 6, or 12s., if compared with the value of the crops, appears heavy. In a great number of villages the fields give absolutely no income, and nothing is produced in them which it would pay to export to the nearest market. But in these places the people have their flocks to fall back upon by selling a sheep and a little home-spun cloth or a blanket; they can make good the whole demand, or they can earn a good deal of money (as many do), by gathering wild roots and herbs in the forests, and selling them in Sultánpur or at Rámpur for export to the plains. *Dhúp* (Dolomiora macrocephala), used as incense in India and China, and *karrú* and *chiretta*, kinds of gentians, used in medicine, are the principal articles so sold. Then they have their honey and beeswax; the upper verandahs of the houses are often full of beehives formed of short lengths of hollow trunks of trees covered at top, and with an entrance hole in the side. Again, by snaring a musk deer and selling its pods, or shooting a leopard or bear and claiming the reward, a sum equal to one or two years' land-tax may be secured at one blow.

Commerce and Trade.—The surplus commodities of Kúlu consist of rice, barley, wheat, opium, tobacco, tea, and honey. The rice, barley, and wheat go chiefly to supply the barren valley of Láhul, though a little grain also finds its way to the plains. Traders from the Punjab towns and neighbouring Hill States buy up the opium,

while the tobacco is exported both into Láhul and Spiti, and into the Simla States. Rice, wheat, and barley are also bartered for salt, with the Tibetans who come down to Patseo in Láhul. Honey and tea are exported to the plains. Sheep are annually sold in large numbers to traders from Simla, at an average price of 7s. or 8s. per head. It is not, however, solely with this object that they are bred. The flesh is freely eaten by the people, and the wool is woven into cloth and blankets in every village, the blankets of Seoráj and Wazírí Rúpí being of superior excellence, and sold at prices ranging from 4s. to 10s. each. The imports consist of borax from Ladákh; brass and copper utensils from the Punjab plains; salt and iron from Mandi. Horses, silk, and *charas* (an intoxicating preparation of hemp) are also largely imported.

Roads, etc.—Two roads lead from Kángra to Sultánpur, and another connects the same place with Simla. Wooden bridges cross the principal rivers, and the Beas is spanned by a steel-rope suspension bridge at Shamsi. The main route to Leh and Yárkand follows the right bank of the Beas, crosses the Rohtang Pass, pursues the valley of the Bhága to Bará Lácha Pass, and thence descends into Ladákh. A post-office has been established at Sultánpur, with a daily mail from Pálampur. Education remains at a very low ebb, but Government schools exist at the two principal villages. Sultánpur also possesses a Government charitable dispensary.

Medical Aspects.—The average annual rainfall of the valley may be put at from 45 to 50 inches. The mean temperature for the month of August amounts to 78° F.; that of November to 55°. The climate cannot be considered favourable to health. Intermittent fevers and bowel complaints prevail in an endemic form, while epidemics of virulent contagious fever and cholera break out from time to time. Goitre and cretinism also occur, as in other confined valleys. Much of the mortality might probably be prevented by cleanliness and better sanitary arrangements; but the rank vegetation, damp soil, and hot sun will always prove prejudicial to the public health, in the opinion of the settlement officer. [For further information regarding Kúlu, see the *Gazetteer of Kangra District*, compiled and published under the authority of the Punjab Government, Part ii. Kúlu, Láhul, and Spiti. Also the *Report of the Land Revenue Settlement of Kangra District*, 1865–72, by Mr. J. B. Lyall, C.S.; together with the *Punjab Census Report* of 1881.]

Kulutzai. — Village in the Ladákh Division of Kashmír State, Northern India; perched upon an elevated site above the right bank of the Indus. Lat. 34° 19′ N., long. 76° 58′ E. A wooden bridge crosses the river, which is here about 25 yards in width. The population consists chiefly of Buddhists.

Kumalgarh.—Fort in the Native State of Udaipur, Rájputána. Built byRáná Kumbhu in the 15th century, on the site of a more ancient fortress, of which mountaineers long held possession. Tradition ascribes it to Sumprit, a Jain prince in the 2nd century; and ancient Jain temples appear to confirm the tradition. The fortress is situated near the village of Kailwára on a steep and craggy mountain, rising to the height of 3568 feet above sea-level, and about 700 feet above the pass below, which it commands. The massive wall, with numerous towers and pierced battlements, encloses a space of some miles in extent below, while tier above tier of ramparts rise to the summit of the hill, which is crowned with the Bádal Mahal, or cloud-palace of the Ránás, whence the eye ranges far to the west over the sandy deserts of Marwár and the chaotic mountain group of the Aravallís. Besides the Arail Pol, or barrier, thrown across the first narrow ascent, about a mile from Kailwára, there is a second gate, called the Hulla Pol, intermediate to the Hanumán Pol, the exterior gate of the fortress, between which and the summit there are four more gates.

Kumáon.—Division and District in the North-Western Provinces.—*See* KUMAUN.

Kumár (also called *Pangási*).—River of the Gangetic Delta, Bengal. An offshoot of the Mátábhángá, leaving the main stream near Alámdángá, and flowing a tortuous easterly and south-easterly course, first for a few miles through Nadiyá District, and afterwards through Jessor, till it forms a connection with the Garái (Gorai). The head of the river is closed during summer by a bar of sand, and silting is rapidly going on in its upper reaches. In Jessor, the river deepens into a beautiful stream of clear water, navigable by large boats all the year round.

Kumár.—River in Farídpur District, Bengal; a branch of the CHANDNA, taking off from that river near Madhukhálí, a few miles west of Farídpur town, and, flowing a tortuous course generally from north-west to south-east, falls into the Ariál Khán at Madáripur, in lat. 23° 10′ N., and long. 90° 15′ 45″ E. Navigable for small boats throughout the year.

Kumáradhári.—River in South Kánara District, Madras Presidency; rises in lat. 13° 50′ N., and long. 76° 52′ E., in the Bisli Ghát on the boundary between Coorg and Hassan District of Mysore, below the Pushpagiri or Subrahmanya range of the Western Gháts, and flows westwards towards the Malabar coast. Near the village of Uppinángadi it joins the Netravati river, and the combined stream, under the latter name, flows into the sea near Mangalore. In the lower part of its course it is much used for navigation; small boats can proceed even above Uppinángadi.

Kumárganj.—Village in Dinájpur District, Bengal; situated on the Atrái river. One of the principal seats of local trade.

Kumárganj.—Village and head-quarters of a police circle (*thána*) in the head-quarters Sub-division of Rangpur District, Bengal; situated on the right bank of the Karátoyá river.

Kumári.—Village on the headland forming the extreme southernmost point of India.—*See* COMORIN.

Kumárkhálí (*Comercolly*).—Town, municipality, and head-quarters of a police circle (*thána*) in the Kushtiá Sub-division of Nadiyá District, Bengal; situated on the left bank of the Garái (Gorai) river. Lat. 23° 51′ 30″ N., long. 89° 17′ 14″ E. Population (1872) 5251; (1881) 6041, namely, Hindus, 3676; Muhammadans, 2356; and 'others,' 9. Area of town site, 640 acres. Municipal income (1876–77), £215; (1881), £353; incidence of taxation, 1s. 1⅛d. per head. Station on the Eastern Bengal Railway, 118 miles from Calcutta. During the mercantile days of the East Indian Company, a commercial Resident was stationed at Kumárkhálí, and a large business in silk was carried on. A few old tombs in a small cemetery, the earliest dating from 1790, are all the existing remains marking the former existence of the Company's factory. The cemetery is now used as a burial-ground for employés of the Eastern Bengal Railway.

Kumáun.—Division or Commissionership under the jurisdiction of the Lieutenant-Governor of the North-Western Provinces. The Division comprises the three British Districts of KUMAUN, GARHWAL, and TARAI, all of which see separately. It is bounded on the north by the Tibetan territory of Hundes; on the east by the independent kingdom of Nepál; on the south by the Rohilkhand Districts of Pilibhít, Bareli (Bareilly), Moradábád, and Bijnor, and by the Native State of Rampur; and on the west by the District of Dehra Dun and by Native Garhwál.

Area, 12,438 square miles; number of towns and villages, 9578; number of houses, 153,605. Total population (1881) 1,046,263, namely, males 545,124, and females 501,139. Average density of population, 84·1 persons per square mile, ranging from 220 in the submontane strip which forms the Tarái District to 62·8 per square mile in the mountainous region of Garhwál. Classified according to religion, there were, in 1881—Hindus, 955,100, or 91·3 per cent.; Muhammadans, 88,320, or 8·4 per cent.; Christians, 2646; Jains, 103; Buddhists, 87; and Pársís, 7. Among the Hindus, the higher castes are unusually strongly represented, Bráhmans numbering 204,994, and Rájputs 425,061, these two classes numbering altogether upwards of two-thirds of the Hindu population. The Muhammadans are almost without exception Sunnís. The Christian population consists mainly of European troops cantoned at the hill stations of Ráníkhet, Almora, and Náini Tál. The villages,

especially in the hill Districts, are mere hamlets of a few houses. Out of a total of 9578 villages and towns, 8462 contained less than two hundred inhabitants; 946 between two hundred and five hundred; 140 from five hundred to a thousand; 25 from one to five thousand; and 5 upwards of five thousand inhabitants. Total male adult agriculturists, 308,632, cultivating 506,752 acres, or an average of 1·64 acre per head. The population entirely dependent on the soil numbers 833,573, or 79·7 per cent. of the total population. The cultivation bears but a small proportion to the total area, only 792 square miles being returned as under tillage in 1881, of which 738 square miles were assessed for Government revenue. The uncultivable area is returned at 9223·5 square miles, and that still available for tillage at 2422·5 square miles.

Total Government land revenue, including local rates and cesses levied on land, £57,257, or an average of 2s. $4\frac{7}{8}$d. per cultivated acre; average rental paid by cultivators in the Tarái District, 4s. $9\frac{7}{8}$d. per cultivated acre. In the hill Districts of Kumáun and Garhwál, a very large proportion of the cultivators are also proprietors, and pay no rent other than the Government revenue demand. The head-quarters of the Commissioner of the Division are at Almora in Kumáun District. The sanitarium of Náini Tál in the same District is the residence of the Lieutenant-Governor of the North-Western Provinces for several months in the year, and the head-quarters of his Government. It is also a favourite summer retreat for Europeans during the hot-weather months.

Kumáun.—The principal District in the Division of the same name in the North-Western Provinces, including the Sub-divisions of Almora or Kumáun Proper, Champáwat, and the Bhábhar. It lies between lat. 28° 55′ and 30° 50′ 30″ N., and between long. 78° 52′ and 80° 56′ 15″ E. Area, 6000 square miles. Population in 1881, 493,641 persons. The administrative head-quarters are at ALMORA town.

Physical Aspects.—Kumáun District consists, first, of the sub-Himálayan ranges; and, secondly, of the *bhábhar* or waterless forest, averaging from 10 to 15 miles in breadth, which stretches between the mountains and the Tarái. Of the entire area of the highlands, only 500 square miles are returned as cultivated, and 100 square miles as cultivable. No country exhibits more extraordinary diversities of temperature and climate than Kumáun. The southern or *bhábhar* portion is of considerable elevation. It is distinguished by a total absence of running water, and is bounded on the south by a line of springs. This tract consists of the loose detritus of the lower hills, resting on a bed of hard clay. The moisture, instead of flowing off from the surface, sinks downwards to the clay beneath, over which it percolates in a southern

direction, and eventually comes to light in the Tarái. The rivers descending from the lower hills, in the same manner lose a considerable portion of their volume on entering the *bhábhar;* and in many instances, during the hot and cold seasons, their beds are perfectly dry for the space of 9 or 10 miles, after which they again fill with water, and, reinforced by the numerous springs which gush out of the earth on the border of the moist country, form the characteristic feature of the Tarái.

Up to 1850, the *bhábhar* was an almost impenetrable forest, given up to wild animals; but since then, the numerous clearings have attracted a large population from the hills, who cultivate the rich soil during the hot and cold seasons, returning home in the rains. The *bhábhar* is, however, still for the most part unreclaimed jungle of the thickest and most luxuriant description; and what changes have taken place in the appearance of this tract by clearing and irrigation, have all been effected within the last twenty-five years, under the personal superintendence of Sir Henry Ramsay, the late Commissioner of Kumáun. With the exception of these low lands, and a few similar tracts of small extent stretching along the great rivers in the lower parts of their courses, Kumáun is a maze of mountains, some of which are among the loftiest known. The ranges run, as a rule, from east to west in groups, connected and intersected by other ridges varying much in elevation, and gradually increasing in height as they approach the north and north-east frontier, which divides the drainage system of the Indus and Sutlej from that of the Ganges.

The crest of the Níti Pass is 16,570 feet above the sea; the Máná Pass, 18,000 feet; the Juhár or Milam Pass, 17,270 feet. To the west, on the boundary of Garhwál, is the Trísúl Mountain, so called from its peaks having the appearance of a trident, the most easterly of which attains an elevation of 22,342 feet, the middle peak 23,092 feet, and the western peak 23,382 feet. To the north-east of Trísúl is Nandá Deví, with an elevation of 25,661 feet; and Nandakot, the *katiya* or couch of the great goddess Nandá, with a height of 22,538 feet. Farther east are the two highest of the Pánchchúla peaks, 22,673 and 21,114 feet respectively. In fact, in a tract not more than 140 miles in length and 40 miles in breadth, there are over 30 peaks rising to elevations exceeding 18,000 feet. South of the thirtieth parallel of latitude no peaks attain the limit of perpetual snow, and few exceed 10,000 feet.

The rivers chiefly take their rise in the southern slope of the Tibetan watershed to the north of the loftiest peaks, amongst which they make their way down valleys of rapid declivity and extraordinary depth. Enumerated from east to west, the principal rivers are—the

Kálí, known as the Sárda where it debouches on the plains, and as the GOGRA (Ghágra) farther south to its junction with the Ganges on the borders of Bengal; and its affluents the eastern Dhauli, Gúnka, Goriganga, eastern Rámgangá, and Sarju; next come the Pindar and Káilgangá, whose waters join the Alaknanda. Inferior to these, but connected with them, are the drainage lines of the southern and less elevated table-lands. Of such the principal are the Ladhiya, Baliya Bhakra, Bhaur, Kosi, and western Rámgangá, which last takes its rise in Garhwál District; but ultimately all reach the Ganges. It is only by the beds of these rivers that access is afforded to the District from the plains on the south and Hundes on the north.

There are several lakes in the Chhakháta *parganá*, the overflow of which is used for providing the small canals of the *bhábhar* with water during the cold and hot seasons. In the Himálayan ranges, also, are several unimportant natural reservoirs resembling lakes. The principal lakes are—the Náini Tál, 4703 feet long by 1518 feet broad, with a maximum depth of 93 feet, and circumference of 2¼ miles; Bhím Tál, 5580 feet long by 1490 broad, with a maximum depth of 87 feet; Naukuchiya, 3120 feet long by 2270 broad, with a maximum depth of 132 feet; Málwá Tál, 4480 feet long by 1833 broad, with a maximum depth of 127 feet. Although the successive steep ridges of Kumáun are only separated by narrow ravines instead of by true valleys, yet, as compared with Garhwál and other cis-Sutlej western Districts, it can boast of some extensive river plateaux and level uplands, which give a peculiar character to its scenery. Of the former, Sumeswár and Hawalbágh on the Kosi, the Katyúr valley on the Gaomati, and the whole centre tract of Pálí watered by the Gagás and western Rámgangá are remarkable examples; of the latter, may be mentioned Chárál in Káli Kumáun, and the neighbourhood of Lohághát and Pithorágarh.

The valuable timber of the yet uncleared forest tracts in Kumáun is now under official supervision. The chief trees are the *chír* or three-leaved Himálayan pine, the cypress, fir, alder, *sál* or iron-wood, and *saindan*. *Sál*, the most valuable of all, grows abundantly in the valleys, stretching down to the plains, and is strictly preserved by the Forest Department.

Limestone, sandstone, slate, gneiss, and granite constitute the principal geological formations of the District. Mines of iron, copper, gypsum, lead, and asbestos exist; but they are not thoroughly worked, and often their inaccessible position, combined with the absence of coal, renders any profitable out-turn impossible.

The fauna and flora of Kumáun District are very varied, but can only be described shortly. The wild animals include the leopard, hyæna, black and brown bear, jackal, monkey, fox, deer of several

species, chamois, and *yák* or Himálayan ox. Elephants are found in the *bhábhar*, and in the forests bordering on the Siwálik Hills. They are now protected by order of Government, and are captured, when required, by means of *khedas*. Tigers are becoming scarcer every year. Venomous snakes are numerous. The *mora* fly is very troublesome in the months of April and May.

History.—Of the early history of Kumáun very little is known. The few facts on record tend to show that at a remote period these mountains were the recognised home of the hero-gods of India, and an object of veneration to all Hindus. In the travels of the Chinese pilgrim Hiuen Tsiang in the 7th century, the kingdom of Govisana, now identified with Kásipur in the Kumáun *tarái*, is mentioned as adjacent to Brahmaputra within the hill territory, a seat of civilised government. The earliest dynasty known to tradition is that of the Katyúra Deos, eventually supplanted by the Chand Rájás, the former reigning at Baijnáth in the Katyúr valley, at which place, and also at Dwára Hát, architectural remains are still extant. The Chand Rájás, of whom the first, Som Chand, is said to have come from Jhusi, near Allahábád, probably in the 10th century of our era, had their established seat of Government at Champáwat in Kálí Kumáun.

In 1563 A.D., the Chands having obtained full authority over all the petty chiefs, including the last descendant of the Katyúras, the capital was transferred to Almora by Rájá Kalyán Chand. His son Rúdra Chand was a contemporary of Akbar, and made his obeisance to that Emperor at Lahore in 1587. The Muhammadan rulers never obtained a fixed footing in the hills; but in 1744, Alí Muhammad Khán sent a force to invade Kumáun. The resistance of the Chand Rájá was weak and ineffectual. The Rohillás captured and plundered Almora. Though their stay in Kumáun was short, its results to the Province are bitterly remembered; and its mischievous, though zealously religious, character is still attested by the mutilated sculptures of some of the Kumáun temples. The Rohillás remained in the hills for seven months, when, disgusted with the climate and the hardships that they were forced to suffer, they accepted a bribe of three *lákhs* of rupees (or £30,000), and returned to the plains. But Alí Muhammad Khán was not satisfied with the conduct of his lieutenants; and three months after their retreat, at the commencement of 1745, the Rohillás returned. They were defeated at the very entrance of the hills near Bárakheri, and made no further attempt on Kumáun. These were the first and last Muhammadan invasions of the hills. The Delhi Emperors never exercised any direct authority in Kumáun, although it was necessary for the Rájá to admit their nominal supremacy for the sake of his possessions in the plains. These events were followed by disturbances and revolutions in Kumáun itself; and within the next thirty years the

hill Rájás lost all the country which they had held in the plains, except the tract known as the *bhábhar.*

In the middle of the 18th century, the Gúrkha tribe, under their chief Prithwi Náráyan, had made themselves masters of the most important part of the present kingdom of Nepál. His successors determined, in 1790, to attack Kumáun. The Gúrkha forces crossed the Kálí, and advanced upon Almora through Gangoli and Kálí Kumáun. The titular Rájá of Kumáun fled to the plains, and the whole of his territory was annexed to the other conquests of the Gúrkhas. The Nepálese rule lasted twenty-four years, and was of a cruel and oppressive character. In the early part of the present century, the Gúrkhas had been making numerous raids in the British possessions lying at the foot of the Himálayas. All remonstrance was unavailing; and in December 1814, it was finally resolved to wrest Kumáun from the Gúrkhas, and annex it to the British possessions, as no legitimate claimant on the part of the Chands was then in existence. Harakdeo Joshi, the minister of the last legitimate Rájá of Kumáun, warmly espoused the British side. At the end of January 1815, everything was ready for the attack on Kumáun. The whole force consisted of 4500 men with two 6-pounder guns.

The first successful event on the British side during this war was the capture of Almora by Colonel Nicholls, on 26th April 1815. On the same day, Chandra Bahádur Sáh, one of the principal Gúrkha chiefs, sent a flag of truce to Colonel Nicholls, requesting a suspension of hostilities, and offering to treat for the evacuation of Kumáun. Lieutenant-Colonel Gardner was deputed to hold a personal conference with Bam Sáh, the Nepálese commander at Almora; and on the following day the negotiation was brought to a close by the conclusion of a convention, under which the Gúrkhas agreed to evacuate the Province and all its fortified places. It was stipulated that they should be allowed to retire across the Kálí with their military stores and private property, the British providing the necessary supplies and carriage. As a pledge for the due fulfilment of the conditions, the fort of Lálmandi (now Fort Moira) was the same day surrendered to the British troops. Captain Hearsey, who had been taken and imprisoned at Almora, was released at the same time. The Gúrkhas were escorted across the Kálí by our troops, and the British took possession of Kumáun and Garhwál.

The Hon. E. Gardner was the first Commissioner of Kumáun; and in August 1817 he was succeeded by his assistant, Mr. Traill. He was followed in 1835 by Colonel Gowan and Mr. S. T. Lushington, under the latter of whom Mr. J. H. Batten carried out the first regular settlement of the Province, and in 1848 succeeded Mr. Lushington as Commissioner. In 1856, Captain (now Major-General Sir Henry) Ramsay was appointed Commissioner, and until 1883 managed the affairs of Kumáun.

Mr. P. Whalley, in his Report on the non-Regulation Provinces, states that the administrative history of Kumáun divides itself naturally into three periods—under Traill, under Batten, and under Ramsay. The *régime* in the first period was essentially despotic and personal, in contrast with the centralizing tendencies which the policy of the Government had developed. It was at the same time just and eminently progressive. Mr. Traill's incumbency terminated in 1835, and then followed an interval of uncertainty. Traill left the Province orderly, prosperous, and comparatively civilised; but his machinery was not easily worked by another hand. There was no law, and the lawgiver had been withdrawn. The Board of Commissioners and the Government found it necessary to re-assert their control, and to lay down specific rules in matters that had hitherto been left to the judgment of the Commissioner.

Mr. Batten was then only Assistant Commissioner of Garhwál, but he was a man eminently qualified both by training and disposition to second the action of Government, and to assist in the inauguration of the new era. His talents had already been recognised, and from this period he was consulted in every step; and it was his influence, more than that of any single officer, which gave its stamp and character to the period (1836–56) distinguished by his name. It was marked in its earlier stage by an introduction of codes and rules and the predominance of official supervision, which gradually diminished as Mr. Batten gained influence, position, and experience. Thus the second period glided insensibly into the third, which, nevertheless, has a distinctive character of its own. In General Ramsay's administration we see the personal sway and unhampered autocracy of the first era happily blending with the orderly procedure and observance of fixed rules and principles, which formed the chief feature of the second period.

Population, etc.—The population of Kumáun in 1872, on an area corresponding with the present District, was returned at 433,314. The Census of 1881 returned the population at 493,641, showing an increase of 60,327, or 13·9 per cent., in the nine years. The results of the Census of 1881 may be summarized as follows:—Area, 6000 square miles; number of towns and villages, 5151; number of houses, 72,964. Total population, 493,641, namely, males 261,054, and females 232,587; proportion of males in total population, 52·8 per cent. Average density of population, 82·2 persons per square mile; number of villages per square mile, ·85; persons per village, 96; persons per occupied house, 6·7. In religion, the District is almost exclusively Hindu. The Census of 1881 returned the Hindus as numbering 479,948, or 97·2 per cent. of the total population; Muhammadans, 11,261, or 2·3 per cent.; Christians, 2393; Buddhists, 32; and Pársís, 7.

The Musalmáns are chiefly recent immigrants from the plains, or the descendants of the retainers of the Kumáun Rájás. The majority of the Hindus belong to the tribe of Khásias, not to be confused with the inhabitants of the Khási Hills in Assam. The Khásias of Kumáun are to all intents and purposes Hindus in religion and customs, and their language is purely Hindu, as shown both by the archaic records extant and by their present dialect. There is every reason to believe that the original Khásias, or inhabitants of Khasdes, mentioned by the Hindu lawgiver Manu, some 2500 years ago, were identical with the modern tribe of Khásias. Successive immigrations from the plains imposed upon them masters, who absorbed all power, and introduced observances characteristic of the Bráhman and Rájput castes, to which they themselves now claim to belong. Indeed, these two castes (Bráhmans numbering 120,137 in 1881, and Rájputs 216,247) now form nearly three-fourths of the entire population. The Doms (104,936 in number), corresponding to the Chamárs of the plains, rank as the lowest of the Khásias, and until the British occupation they were the prædial slaves of the landholders. It is by no means proved that these Doms are the descendants of any non-Aryan aboriginal race. They share with their Khásia countrymen the superstitious belief in demons and sprites common to all mountaineers. Every crag and summit has its local deity and shrine, at which kids are offered in sacrifice; at the larger temples at river junctions buffaloes are similarly slaughtered. Most of the great tribes of Northern India have their representatives amongst the hill communities, and among the Bráhmans the tribe of astrologers, known as *jyotishs* or *joshis*, have attained the greatest influence.

The Bhotiyas (from Bhot, the corrupt form of *Bod* or Tibet) inhabit the country lying north of the great peaks. The Bhotiyas are distinctly of Tibetan origin, but they are little inclined themselves to admit this fact. In the Juhár valley especially, they have adopted the language and customs of their Hindu neighbours; though, if report be true, when once across the border they do as the Tibetans do, and are good Buddhists. The features and dialect of the Bhotiyas resemble closely those of the people of Tibet. The Kumáunis themselves are a tolerably fair, good-looking race; and, except in the extreme northern *parganás*, any difference of feature may be attributed to climatic influences rather than to any extensive intermixture of Tartar blood. On the whole, the character of the people is estimable and pleasing. The men are active, cheerful, honest, and industrious. The women in their youth are generally pretty. The custom of polyandry is here unknown, but polygamy is frequent.

The 5151 villages or hamlets of the District are scattered about the hill-sides, the houses being built of stone laid in mud, and

roofed with slates, or with planks or thatch. No less than 4662 villages contain less than two hundred inhabitants; 435 from two to five hundred; 44 from five hundred to a thousand; and only 10 upwards of a thousand inhabitants. The better class of dwellings are ornamented with wooden carvings, principally of *tún*-wood (Cedrela toona). The only native town is ALMORA. CHAMPAWAT, the ruined capital of the Chands, ranks only as a village, though it boasts of a *tashíli* in the old fort. There are large *bázárs* at the European stations of NAINI TAL and RANIKHET. Milam, the principal residence of the Juhár Bhotiyas, is a large, well-built village, but is uninhabitable between November and May. Of the *mandis* or market gatherings in the *bhábhar*, Rámnagar on the Kosi is the most considerable.

Classified according to occupation, the Census Report of 1881 returned the male population as follows:—(1) Professional, including all Government servants, and the learned professions, 3599; (2) domestic class, 5586; (3) commercial class, 1405; (4) agricultural class, 150,946; (5) industrial class, 13,113; (6) indefinite and non-productive class, 86,405.

Agriculture.—The agriculture of the *bhábhar* is being assimilated so rapidly to that of the plains, that a separate notice of it is hardly required. Wheat and mustard form a large proportion of the *rabí* or spring crops, and the irrigation absolutely necessary for all cultivation in that tract is supplied by a well-organized system of small canals. The area available for cultivation is small in Kumáun. In order to remedy this deficiency, the sides of hills, wherever possible, have been cut down into terraces, rising above each other in regular succession, and having their fronts supported by stone abutments. The soil, except in some of the valleys, is often poor and stony, and requires much manure. In certain localities, periodical cultivation with the hoe only is carried on. On the better kinds of land, rice, wheat, and tobacco are grown; on the others, according to the season, wheat, barley, mustard, vetch, flax, Indian corn, millets, pulses, sugar-cane, cotton, oil-seeds, etc. The staple food of the peasantry is the millet called *mandua* (Eleusine corocana), the *rágí* of the Deccan. The cucumber family is largely used; and in the southernmost *parganás*, ginger, turmeric, and capsicums are profitable crops. Potatoes are becoming common in some localities, but are not so plentifully grown as in the Simla Hills. Fruit is very plentiful in Kumáun. The oranges grown here are of excellent quality.

The tea plantations form now an important and valuable feature in the District, but are almost entirely in the hands of European owners. In 1876-77 the number of gardens was 19, covering an area of 2222 acres. The total yield of tea in that year was 261,060 lbs. In 1882-83 the number of plantations was returned at

35, but no statistics are given showing the area under cultivation or the out-turn. Both are probably nearly double the return for 1876-77. The recent opening up of the Central Asian market through Afghán traders, who come to the plantations in person, has given a fresh impetus to this industry, which had begun to decline.

Landed property in Kumáun, both in theory and practice, has ever been vested in the State. The occupant landholders possess an hereditary and transferable property in the soil, but their rights were never indefeasible and have always been revocable at the hands of the sovereign. The proprietary right is in a state of extreme sub-division, each hamlet or village being shared commonly amongst many petty proprietors. Where the proprietary and occupancy rights are vested in the same individual, the cultivating tenants under him possess no rights in the soil, and are mere tenants-at-will. Fully three-fifths of the arable land in Kumáun are cultivated by the proprietors themselves. Proprietors simply pay their share of the Government demand; while old occupancy tenants (*khayakárs*) are subject to an additional money payment, in commutation of certain dues and fees formerly demanded.

In native times, Bráhmans and other principal grantees cultivated their lands by means of *hályas* or domestic slaves. In the tea plantations, the planters hold their estates in what would be elsewhere called pure *zamíndárí* right, including that portion of the adjacent forest and waste, within fixed boundaries, to which Government has given up its claim. A very few instances of such tenure also exist among the principal natives of the District. The head-man of every village is called the *pradhán*, whose office is often hereditary, but essentially elective. In large estates each clan has its own representative head-man. The Government revenue is collected by and paid through the *pradháns*, who are remunerated by rent-free lands and certain fees and privileges. They are the local police officers in each village for reporting offences, etc. The higher class of hereditary head-men are called *siyánas*, *kamíns*, and *thokdárs*.

Natural Calamities.—No universal famine has taken place in Kumáun since the British gained possession of the District. The worst calamities of this kind were in 1838 and 1867. Disastrous floods are almost unknown, but sometimes, as in 1840, the valley lands suffer from sudden freshets, which cover the soil with barren gravel. Heavy rains, too, wash away field terrace-walls, and houses and lands are occasionally injured by landslips. In September 1880, a cyclone caused much damage from landslips and floods. In the Bhot *mahals*, avalanches are always threatening the safety of villages and of travellers, and laden cattle and sheep are sometimes over-

whelmed in the passes; but no great disaster has yet occurred requiring special notice. On an average of five years, 58 persons have perished yearly in Kumáun from the attacks of wild animals and snake-bites; while the record of a single year shows the destruction of 45 tigers, 124 leopards, and 240 bears, at a cost of £146 in Government rewards.

Manufactures, Commerce, etc.—If we except tea prepared on the European plantations, there are no manufactures of any note. The people of the northern tracts, who use woollen clothing, weave a coarse kind of serge. The trade of Kumáun may be described under two heads—first, that in the hands of the Bhotiyas with Tibet; and, secondly, that with the plains. The Tibet trade is almost a complete monopoly in the hands of its carriers. The imports are ponies, *yáks*, sheep, salt, borax, gold, wool, drugs, precious stones, *yák* tails, coarse woollen cloth, and Chinese silks. The exports are grain, cotton goods, broadcloth, quilts, hardware, tobacco, sugar, spices, dyes, tea, and wood for house-building. In the year 1876–77, imports *viâ* Juhár were valued at £12,600, and exports at £4100; imports *viâ* Dárma and Byáus at £8500, and exports at £5500 in value. No later statistics are available.

Kumáun sends to the plains grain of sorts, clarified butter, tea, ginger, turmeric, red pepper, potatoes, hill drugs and spices, bark for tanning, pine-tar, honey and wax, and a little iron and copper, besides the timber and wild jungle produce of the *bhábhar*. Its imports comprise every article of necessity or luxury, both for Europeans and natives, which the hills themselves do not furnish. Trade has of late much improved, owing to the increase of markets and the improvement in communications. The roads in the hills are for the most part only bridle-paths, more or less well laid out, but all now well bridged, English iron suspension bridges having superseded the old native rope *jhulas* over the larger rivers. Cart-roads run from Haldwáni to Náini Tál, and from Rámnagar to Ránîkhet and Almora, the latter penetrating into the very heart of the District. Total length of made roads in 1882–83, 1402 miles. Among the resources of Kumáun, which may be further developed, are the mineral and metallic products. At Dechauri in the *bhábhar*, experiments are being carried on with a view to the profitable working of the tertiary iron-ores, in the vicinity of forest fuel.

Administration.—The public revenue under the native rulers was derived from a variety of sources besides land produce, most of which were given up at the conquest by the British. Traill's land assessments were for short periods; Batten's Settlement in 1846 was for twenty years; Beckett's existing Settlement is for thirty years, and is the first based on a regular survey. Though it has produced a large increase

of the Government demand, its incidence on the land is light, the average rate being Rs. 1. 3. 11, or about 2s. 5½d., per cultivated *bisi* or local acre, and Rs. 0. 13. 10 per *bisi* on total cultivated and cultivable area. The total revenue of Kumáun District, in 1882–83, was £68,585, of which £25,374 was derived from the land. Total cost of officials and police of all kinds, £13,874. For the collection of the revenue, as well as for general duty, 2 *tahsíldárs* are stationed at Almora and Champáwat. They are assisted by local *patwáris*, a peculiar class of mixed fiscal and judicial petty officers, each of whom has charge of one or more *pattis*, paid chiefly from a cess of 4 per cent. on the land revenue. Besides this cess, there is a District *dák* or post-office cess of 3 per cent. in lieu of personal service, and a school cess to provide vernacular education. A small tax of from 1 to 3 rupees (2s. to 6s.) is levied on village water-mills for grinding corn. There are police stations at Almora, Náini Tál, Rániíkhet, Champáwat, and Shor, within the hills, and at Rámnagar, Káladhúngi, Haldwáni, and Barmdeo in the *bhábhar*, where protection is required at the *mandis* or marts. There is a jail at Almora, but crime in Kumáun is, generally speaking, light.

The Civil Courts, presided over by the European staff and 2 native subordinate judges, have a simple procedure, resembling that of our county courts, and deal with a rather excessive amount of petty litigation, chiefly connected with land. The language used is Hindí, written in the Nágari character, and well known to the suitors.

Climate, etc.—With the exception of the *bhábhar* and deep valleys, Kumáun on the whole enjoys a mild climate. Even at heights from 5000 feet upwards, supposed to possess a European climate, the periodical rains and atmospheric conditions preceding and following them, throw the whole southern slope of the great Himálayan chain for almost half the year into the sub-tropical rather than the temperate region. The seven months from October to April are delightful. The rainfall of the outer range, which is first struck by the monsoon, is double that of the central hills, in the average proportion of 80 inches to 40. No winter passes without snow on the higher ridges, and in some years its occurrence is universal throughout the mountain tract. Frosts, especially in the valleys, are often severe. The average death-rate for the five years ending 1881 was returned at 21·25 per thousand. There are numerous Government dispensaries in the District, and the American Mission has its medical establishments also. Kumáun is occasionally visited by epidemic cholera. Leprosy, affecting 4 to 5 per 1000 persons, is most prevalent in the east of the District. There is an asylum at Almora for those suffering from this disease. Goitre and cretinism afflict a small proportion of the inhabitants, especially in the north-eastern *parganás*. The hill fevers at times exhibit the rapid and malignant features of plague. The *mahámari* pestilence, which was

formerly confined to Garhwál, has of late years extended its ravages to Kumáun. The authorities are giving their anxious attention to sanitary measures, the total neglect and violation of which have produced among the natives fatal typhoid outbreaks. Murrains break out from time to time among the cattle. [For further information regarding Kumáun, see the *Gazetteer of the North-Western Provinces*, vols. x. and xi. (Himálayan Districts), by Mr. E. T. Atkinson, C.S. (Allahábád, 1881 and 1882); the *Settlement Report of Kumáun District*, by Mr. J. O'B. Beckett, C.S. (1875); a collection of *Official Reports on the Province of Kumáun*, edited by Mr. J. H. Batten, C.S. (Agra, 1851); the *Census Report of the North-Western Provinces and Oudh* for 1881; and the several Provincial Administration and Departmental Reports from 1880 to 1885.]

Kumbhákamdrúg.—Mountain in North Arcot District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 13° 34′ 35″ N., long. 79° 55′ 22″ E. The principal peak in the Satliawád range of hills; highest point, 2598 feet above sea-level.

Kumbhakonam.—Town in Tanjore District, Madras Presidency.—*See* COMBACONUM.

Kumbhárli-ghát.—Road over the Western Gháts, between Ratnágiri and Satára Districts, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 17° 26′ N., long. 73° 45′ E.; 123 miles south-east by south of Bombay. The road leads from Karád in Satára to Chiplún in Ratnágiri.

Kumbher (*Kumher*).—Town in Bhartpur (Bhurtpore) State, Rájputána. Lat. 27° 19′ N., long. 77° 25′ E.; 11 miles north-west of Bhartpur city. Thornton states that it was unsuccessfully besieged by the Maráthás in 1754; and surrendered to the British in 1826, after the capture of Bhartpur. The town is on the high road to Díg. It was founded at the beginning of last century by the chief of Jaipur, and is a small place situated in a plain, and surrounded by a mud wall and ditch. It has a large palace built by Budan Singh, which, although in a good state of preservation, is now infested by bats, and never used as a place of residence. The palace of the Rájá commands the surrounding plain, and serves as a fortress. Post-office. Population (1881) 7306. Hindus numbered 5972, and Muhammadans 1334.

Kumhársain.—One of the Simla Hill States, under the Government of the Punjab. Lat. 31° 6′ to 31° 20′ 30″ N., and long. 77° 22′ to 77° 35′ E. The village of Kumhársain is situated in lat. 31° 19′ N., and long. 77° 30′ E., about 40 miles east of Simla on the road to Kúlu. Area of State, 90 square miles, containing 254 villages or hamlets, and 1445 houses. Total population (1881) 9515, namely, males 4920, and females 4595. Hindus number 9405, and Muhammadans 110. This State, formerly a feudatory of Bashahr, was declared independent after the expulsion of the Gúrkhas in 1815. The *sanad*, dated

7th February 1816, binds the chief and his heirs to render feudal service to the British Government. The Ráná of Kumhársain, Hirá Singh, is a Rájput, born about 1850. The State pays a tribute to the British Government of £200. Estimated revenue of the chief, £1200.

Kumhráwan.—*Parganá* in Digbijaiganj *tahsíl*, Rái Bareli District, Oudh; bounded on the north by *parganá* Haidarábád of Bara Banki, on the east by *tahsíl* Mohanlálganj of Lucknow, on the south by *parganá* Hardoi, and on the west by Rokha Jais. Watered by the river Náiya. Area, 70 square miles, or 44,619 acres. Population (1869) 44,619; (1881) 35,259, namely, males 17,456, and females 17,803. Classified according to religion, Hindus numbered 34,034, and Muhammadans 1225. Government land revenue, £5719; incidence per acre, 3s. 2¾d. The chief proprietary body are Amethia Rájputs, a branch of the Chamár Gaurs, said to be the descendants of a Gaur widow, who, at the extirpation of the Kshattriyas by the Bráhmans, found an asylum in a Chamár's hut. The memory of this humble refuge is still kept alive by the worship of the *rápi* or cobbler's cutting tool. Great numbers of the Chamár Gaurs now hold villages in Hardoi District, and it is probable that the Amethias were an offshoot of the same immigration. Tradition discovers them first at Shiupurí and afterwards at the celebrated fortress of Kálinjar. Somewhere about the time of Tamerlane's invasion of Hindustán, Ráipál Singh left Kálinjar and settled at Amethi in Lucknow, and a branch of the family subsequently obtained Kumhráwan. Of the 58 villages comprising the *parganá* 40 are *tálukdárí*, 4 *zamíndárí*, and 14 *pattidárí*.

Kumillá.—Head-quarters town of Tipperah District, Bengal.—*See* COMILLA.

Kumiriá.—Village and head-quarters of a police circle (*thána*) in the head-quarters Sub-division of Chittagong District, Bengal; situated near the sea-coast, on the main road from Tipperah to Chittagong, on the banks of the Kumhíra Khál (Crocodile Creek), from which it derives its name. Lat. 20° 30′ 15″ N., long. 91° 45′ 40″ E.

Kumlágrah.—Fortress in Mandi State, Punjab; situated in lat. 31° 48′ N., and long. 76° 43′ E., near the south bank of the Beas (Biás); consisting of a range of forts, about 3 miles in length, constructed partly of masonry and partly of the natural sandstone rock. The principal stronghold crowns an isolated peak, whose precipitous sides tower 1500 feet above the Beas, with double that elevation above sea-level. Sansár Chand, Rájá of Kángra, attacked the fortifications unsuccessfully; but General Ventura, the partisan Sikh commander, succeeded in carrying them, against the popular belief in their impregnability.

Kúmpta (*Coompta*).—Sub-division of North Kánara District, Bombay Presidency. Situated along the coast, and bounded on the north by Ankola; on the east by Sirsi and Siddapur; on the south by

Honáwar; and on the west by the Arabian Sea. Area, 230 square miles. Population (1881) 58,758, namely, 29,088 males and 29,670 females; density of population, 255·4 persons per square mile; number of towns, 2; villages, 115; houses, 9803. Hindus number 55,010, or 93 per cent.; Muhammadans, 2099, or 3·5 per cent.; 'others,' 1649.

The coast-line, beginning south of the Gangáwali river, consists of long stretches of sand, fringed with cocoa-nut gardens, crossed by frequent rocky highlands and headlands, and by tidal creeks. Eight to twelve miles inland the hills are clothed with forest, which becomes denser as the Sahyádri Hills are approached. Near the coast is a belt of rice land; beyond is the central plain occupied by rice and sugar-cane; inland, rice gives place to *rágí*. Water is plentiful. The soil is sandy and red loam. Products, cocoa-nuts, rice, areca-nuts, pepper, sugar-cane, and pulses. The whole Sub-division has been brought under the Bombay Survey Settlement. Average rainfall for ten years ending 1879, 132·4 inches; in one year, 1877, 201 inches fell. Agricultural stock in 1881-82—Horned cattle, 28,317; horses, 11; sheep and goats, 253; ploughs, 4900; carts, 146. In 1883, the Sub-division contained 1 civil and 2 criminal courts; number of police circles (*thánás*), 3; with a regular police force of 43, and a village watch of 22 men. Land revenue (1881-82), £12,122.

Kúmpta (*Coompta*).—Chief town of the Kúmpta Sub-division, Kánara District, Bombay Presidency; situated on the sea-coast, on the north side of the Kúmpta creek, one mile east of the lighthouse, and about 113 miles north of Mangalore, and 40 miles south of Kárwár. Lat. 14° 26′ N., and long. 74° 27′ E. Population (1881) 10,629, namely, 5571 males and 5058 females. Hindus numbered 9189; Muhammadans, 705; Christians, 679; and Jains, 56. Municipal income (1880-81), £1163, or 2s. 1½d. per head.

Kúmpta, though an open roadstead, is a place of large trade, owing to the roads which connect it with the cotton marts of Dhárwár; but it is expected that this traffic will be much affected by the new railway which is to have its terminus at Marmagao, in Portuguese territory. The lighthouse, in lat. 14° 25′ N., and long. 74° 23′ E., is 6 miles to the north of Fortified Island, and consists of a white masonry column or tower, 60 feet high, erected on a hill 120 feet in elevation, and about half a mile to the east of the rocky cliffs of Kúmpta point. It exhibits a fixed white light, at an elevation of 180 feet above sea-level, which is visible at the distance of 9 miles from the deck of a ship in clear weather. This light overlooks the mouth of the creek which leads boats at high water up to the cotton warehouse on the south side of the town.

Kúmpta seems to have been formerly a place of some note. Its lanes are straight and fenced with stone walls, and it has many

cocoa-nut gardens. Twice it had the misfortune of having Tipú's army encamped in its vicinity, and on both occasions it was burned down by some of the irregulars. The town contains a sub-judge's court, a telegraph office, a post-office, a school, and a dispensary, and is the head-quarters station of the chief revenue and police officers of the Sub-division. Its trade consists chiefly of cotton, spices, and grain, the first coming from Dhárwár District, and the rest from the upland country of Kánara. The only manufacture is the carving of a few articles of sandal-wood, which are exported to Bombay. Kúmpta port is one of the seven ports which make up the Honáwar Customs Division. The average value of imports at Kúmpta port alone for the five years ending 1881-82 was £269,754, and of exports £570,878. In 1881-82, the imports were valued at £219,415, and the exports at £636,299.

Kunáwár (*Kanáwár*).—The upper or north-eastern Sub-division of Bashahr (Bassahir) State, Punjab, consisting in great part of the valley of the Upper Sutlej. Lat. 31° 16′ to 32° 3′ N., and long. 77° 33′ to 79° 2′ E.; bounded on the north by Spiti, on the east by Chinese territory, on the south by Bashahr Proper and Garhwál, and on the west by the Kochi Sub-division of Bashahr. Estimated area, 1730 square miles. Population (1881) 14,315.

Kunáwár consists of a rugged country, 50 miles in length by 40 in breadth, through whose ridges winds the deeply cleft valley of the Sutlej. The precipitous banks of the central river afford little room for cultivation; but the valleys of its tributaries are assiduously tilled by the mountaineers. The chief of these are—the Li or river of Spiti, the Dárbang, the Píjar, the Kocháng, the Malgin, the Yálá, the Wangar, and the Keuncha, which flow into the Sutlej on the right side; and the Hocho, the Tughlagkhur, the Tidang, the Baspa, the Panwí, the Soldang, and the Kundala, which enter from the left. The Sutlej, which forms everywhere the centre of depression, has an elevation of about 10,000 feet on the north-eastern border, falling to about 4000 feet as it passes out of Kunáwár on the south-west. The lower valley has a warm climate, rendered oppressively hot in summer by radiation from the rocks. The monsoon reaches only the southern extremity of Kunáwár, so that the autumn rains do not extend to the upper half, which depends almost entirely for its water-supply upon artificial irrigation from the hill streams. The winter is rigorous, and snow often blocks up and isolates the higher villages for considerable periods together. Nevertheless, until about twenty-five years ago, grapes yielded an abundant vintage, being manufactured into raisin wine and strong spirit. The prevalence of vine disease has, however, seriously affected the vintage of the country. Its attacks are supposed by the people to have been provoked by the wrath of the local goddess Bhím Kálí of Será-

han, who was offended by the attempt of a European to manufacture wine or spirit at Chíni.

The population consists of a mixed Tibetan and Hindu race, the Turanian element preponderating in the north, while the southern region is inhabited by persons of Aryan type. In physique, the Kunáwáris are tall, athletic, well made, and dark-skinned; while their character stands high for hospitality, truthfulness, and honesty. Alone among the neighbouring hill tribes, they successfully resisted the Gúrkha invasion, and so completely baffled the enemy by breaking down bridges, that the Gúrkhas entered into a convention by which, in return for a tribute of £750 per annum, they agreed to leave the valley unmolested. Polyandry everywhere exists in its fullest form.

The religion of the Kunáwáris shows the same mixed origin as its ethnical peculiarities. The northern villages profess Buddhism of the Tibetan model; in the south, Hinduism prevails, while the middle region shades off gradually from one faith into the other, producing grotesque mixtures of ceremonial and belief. Bráhmans do not live beyond Seráhan, near the southern frontier; at Kanum, half-way across the tract, the Tibetan sacred books are in use, and *lámas* are found, but the Hindu veneration for kine still exists, and the distinctions of caste survive; while at Hang-rang, on the northern frontier, Buddhism assumes the pure Tibetan form. The language shades off, like the religion, from Tibetan in the north to neo-Sanskritic dialects on the Indian side. The chief villages in the valley are Sangnam and Kanum.

Kúnch.—South-western *tahsíl* of Jaláun District, North-Western Provinces; consisting of a level plain, much cut up by ravines along the Pahúj river on its western border, and irrigated by the inundation known as *pauh* from the Samthar State on the south. The *tahsíl* is thickly populated, and said to be better cultivated than any other tract in the District. Area, 209 square miles, of which 168 are under cultivation. Population (1872) 67,041; (1881) 71,429, namely, males 36,246, and females 35,183; the total increase during the nine years being 4388, or 6·5 per cent. Classified according to religion, there were, in 1881—Hindus, 67,035, and Muhammadans, 4394. Of the 216 villages comprising the *tahsíl*, 162 contained less than five hundred inhabitants. Land revenue, £22,484; total Government revenue, £25,268; rental paid by cultivators, £40,013; corrected rental, £49,663; incidence of Government revenue per acre, 3s. 4½d. Communication is afforded by the metalled roads from Jhánsi to Phaphund railway station in Etáwah District, and from Kúnch to Urai, as well as by several fair-weather roads. In 1883 the *tahsíl* contained 2 civil and 2 criminal courts; number of police circles (*thánás*), 5; with a regular police force of 46, and a village watch of 186 men.

Kúnch.—Municipal town in Jaláun District, North-Western Pro-

vinces, and head-quarters of Kúnch *tahsíl*. Lat. 25° 59′ 30″ N., and long. 79° 11′ 55″ E. The town stands on the open plain, distant from Urái 19 miles west, from Kálpi 42 miles south-west. Population (1872) 14,448; (1881) 13,739, namely, males 6749, and females 6990. Classified according to religion, Hindus numbered 11,216 in 1881, and Muhammadans 2523. Area of town site, 705 acres. The town consists of a business end to the east, and of a quiet, straggling, country village to the west. A large tank, known as Govind Ráo's Tál, built about 1750, is adorned with steps on all sides, and a cupola at each corner, but it contains no water during the dry season. Cotton and wheat market; market for molasses, rice, and tobacco; salt market. Narrow, tortuous, unmade, undrained *bázár* lanes, with poor-looking and often ruinous shops. Surface much intersected by ravines and water-courses. Declining trade and population; insufficient communications. In 1804, Colonel Fawcett, commanding British troops in Bundelkhand, sent a force to reduce a neighbouring fort. Amír Khán, then plundering Mau and Irichh, attacked them unexpectedly, and drove them back to their camp with considerable loss. The freebooting chief next plundered Kálpi and Ata; but Kúnch was saved by the remains of the British force. Shortly afterwards, the British troops under Colonel Shepherd dispersed the marauding body. During the Mutiny of 1857, the rebels under Barjor Singh frequently occupied Kúnch. Residence of an extra-Assistant Commissioner; *tahsíli*, police station, *tahsíli* school, girls' school, Government charitable dispensary. Municipal revenue in 1875–76, £805; in 1882–83, £722, of which £626 was derived from octroi; incidence of taxation, 10⅞d. per head of the town population.

Kund.—Valley in Kashmír State, Northern India.—*See* KHUND.

Kundada-betta.—Peak in the Kiggatnad *táluk* of Coorg. Distant 4 miles from Hátúr, on the Mysore-Cannanore road. On the summit is a small stone temple dedicated to Iswara or Siva, repaired in 1853; standing on the edge of a precipice 500 feet high. A festival or *játra* is annually held here.

Kúndáhs.—Range of mountains in Nílgiri District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 11° 9′ to 11° 21′ 40″ N., and long. 76° 27′ 50″ to 76° 46′ E. The western wall of the Nílgiri plateau, rising abruptly from Malabar. The summit of the ridge is rocky and precipitous; and the sides, covered at places with grass, slope down to the valley of the Kúndáh river, which separates this range from the rest of the table-land. The three highest points are Avalanche Peak, 8502 feet; Bear Hill, 8353 feet; and Makúrti, 8402 feet. The ground is broken, and tea-planting is less developed than in the rest of the District. From Utákamand (Ootacamund) the view of the Kúndáh range is remarkably beautiful. The Bhaváni river rises in this range, and Government have

recently reserved all the remaining woodlands with the view of maintaining the rain-supply. The best big game shooting on the Nílgiris is to be found here.

Kundálá.—Village in the Hill State of Nalágarh (Hindur), Punjab; situated near the borders of Biláspur State and the Rupar *tahsíl* of Ambálá District, on the road between Biláspur and Nalágarh towns. Celebrated for its deep lake known as Kálá Kund. A *bandh* or masonry dam, placed across one end of the lake by a late Rájá of the State, has enabled its waters to be used extensively for irrigation.

Kundápur.—Town and river, South Kánara District, Madras Presidency.—*See* KANDAPUR.

Kundhnan Khurd.—Town in Faizábád (Fyzábád) District, Oudh. —*See* KANDARKA KHURD.

Kundia. — Village in the Native State of Udaipur, Rájputána. Situated 45 miles north-east of Udaipur city, on the banks of the Banás. Here are many temples; and the pool Matri-ka-kúnd is celebrated, as it is said that the sins of Parasuráma, the would-be matricide, were washed away on his bathing in its waters.

Kundla.—Town in Bhaunagar State, Káthiáwár, Gujarát, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 21° 21′ N., long. 71° 25′ E. Population (1881) 6135, of whom 4431 are Hindus, 921 Muhammadans, and 783 Jains. The Kundla region is very fertile, and excellent cotton is grown. Irrigation is carried on, and large crops are obtained in the cold weather. Native saddlery of wide reputation is made here. Travellers' bungalow, dispensary, post-office, and two schools.

Kundri, North.—*Parganá* in Biswán *tahsíl*, Sítápur District, Oudh; forming together with SOUTH KUNDRI the *doáb* or alluvial valley between the Chauka and Gogra. The country is a perfect network of small streams, which annually overflow their banks during the rains, causing considerable damage. Area, 164¾ square miles, or 105,507 acres, of which 67,983 acres are cultivated, 17,695 acres are cultivable, and 19,829 acres are uncultivable waste. Population (1869) 69,584; (1881) 71,161, namely, males 37,288, and females 33,873. The incidence of the land revenue is at the rate of 1s. 3⅞d. per acre of total area, 1s. 8¼d. per acre of assessed area, and 2s. 1⅜d. per acre of cultivated area. The villages number 129, of which 66 are held on *tálukdári* and 63 on *zamíndári* tenure. Rájputs hold 92 villages, Musalmáns 26, Government 7, and Bráhmans, Káyasths, Baniyás, and Bháts, 1 each. In ancient times, the inhabitants were Bhars, Kurmís, and Raghubansis. Local tradition relates that about 700 years ago two Rájput brothers, Bál and Sál, came from their native town of Raiká in Jamu, and drove out the Bhars. Bál and Sál divided the country, the former taking the northern parts, and the latter the southern. The descend-

ants of both are extant to the present day, and are known as Raikwár Rájputs, from the name of the original village of their ancestors. The descendants of Sál are chiefly found in Rámnagar *parganá*, Bara Banki District; and those of Bál, in Kundri and in Bahráich. In Kundri, the chief Raikwár proprietors were the Rájá of Chahlári, who was slain in the Mutiny and his estates confiscated, the Ráo of Mallápur, and the Thákur of Rámpur.

Kundri, South.—*Parganá* in Siddhauli *tahsíl*, Sítápur District, Oudh; forming, together with NORTH KUNDRI, the *doáb* or alluvial valley between the Chauka and the Gogra, and liable to destructive inundations. Area, 63½ square miles, or 40,898 acres, of which 24,135 acres are cultivated, 7997 acres cultivable, 52 acres *muáfi*, and 8764 acres uncultivable waste. Population (1869) 29,393; (1881) 26,516, namely, males 14,259, and females 12,257. The incidence of the land revenue is at the rate of 1s. 1d. per acre of total area, 1s. 4½d. per acre of assessed area, and 1s. 9d. per acre of cultivated area. The villages number 39, of which 27 are held by a Raikwár *tálukdár*.

Kunhár (also called *Nainsukh*).—River in Hazára District, Punjab; draining the whole of the Khágán valley. Rises in lat. 34° 51′ N., and long. 74° 4′ E., in lake Lohusur, at the head of the Khágán glen, and after a course of about 100 miles, joins the Jehlam (Jhelum) at Patan, in lat. 34° 17′ N., and long. 73° 31′ E. Narrow and rocky bed; as far as Balákot, extremely tortuous. Mountains from 8000 to 15,700 feet in height hem it in on either side, the basin between rarely exceeding 16 miles in width, and contracting in its lower portion, where the hills subside, to 8 miles or less. Above Balákot, the torrent flows so fiercely that nothing can live in it; below that point, the stream may be crossed by swimming during the summer months, and sometimes even becomes fordable. One of the main roads to Kashmír runs through the Batrási and Dúb Passes, on the western and eastern banks respectively, and crosses the Kunhár at Garhi Habib-ullá by a suspension bridge, with a span of 108 feet, erected in 1856 at a cost of £798. Below this bridge, rough suspension bridges of rope, manufactured from twisted twigs, cross the river at long intervals.

Kunhiár.—One of the Simla Hill States, under the political superintendence of the Government of the Punjab. Lat. 31° 3′ to 31° 7′ N., and long. 76° 59′ to 77° 3′ E. The area is 8 square miles, and the population in 1881 was returned at 1923. The little State occupies a fertile valley about 15 miles west of Simla. The climate is very mild, and the soil fertile, producing good crops of sugar-cane. The Thákur of Kunhiár, Tegh Singh, is a Raghubansi Rájput, born about 1834. The family has the title of Ráo, and within the last two generations has taken the suffix Singh. The founder of the family, Bhaj Deo, who came from Jamu, conquered and held this petty State at a date unknown. The

sanad of the chiefship is dated 4th September 1815, after the expulsion of the Gúrkhas. It contains the usual terms of vassalage. The annual revenue of the chief is estimated at £400. The State pays a tribute of £18 to the British Government.

Kuní.—River rising in the Yeotmál range of hills, Wún District, Berár. After a southerly course of about 46 miles, it flows into the Pengangá, in lat. 19° 47′ 30″ N., and long. 78° 41′ 30″ E.

Kuniá-dháná.—Petty State in Bundelkhand, Central India.—*See* KHANIA-DHANA.

Kunigal.—*Táluk* in the south-east of Túmkúr District, Mysore State. Area, 328 square miles, of which 116 are cultivated. Population (1881) 58,757, namely, 28,306 males and 30,451 females. Of the total population, 54,849 were Hindus, or 93 per cent.; 3830 Muhammadans, 31 Jains, and 47 Christians. Land revenue (1881–82), exclusive of water rates, £9018, or 2s. 5d. per cultivated acre. The Shimsha runs through portion of the *táluk*. The north is fertile and well cultivated. The *táluk* in 1884 contained 1 criminal court and 5 police stations (*thánás*); regular police, 51 men; village watch (*chaukidárs*), 26. Revenue, £10,356.

Kunigal.—Town in Túmkúr District, Mysore State. Lat. 13° 1′ 40″ N., long. 77° 4′ 10″ E.; on the Bangalore-Hassan road, 22 miles south by road from Túmkúr town. Population (1881) 3793. The fort is said to have been founded by a local chief in 1290. It is said to derive its name from a 'dancing stone' (*kunigallu*), Siva having danced here. A large tank has been constructed at the junction of three hill streams. In recent years, a low type of fever has made the place very unhealthy. An important establishment for breeding horses for the Mysore *sillidárs*. Head-quarters of the Kunigal *táluk*.

Kunjah.—Town and municipality in Gujrát *tahsíl*, Gujrát District, Punjab, 7 miles north-west of Gujrát town. Lat. 32° 31′ 45″ N., long. 74° 1′ E. Population (1868) 5975; (1881) 5799, namely, Muhammadans, 3898; Hindus, 1712; and Sikhs, 189. Number of houses, 640. Municipal revenue in 1875–76, £113; in 1882–83, £156, or 6½d. per head of the town population. Kunjah is a considerable agricultural and local trading centre, with a *bázár*, grain market, police station, school-house, and dispensary.

Kunjpurá. — Town and municipality in Karnál *tahsíl*, Karnál District, Punjab. Situated in lat. 29° 43′ N., long. 77° 7′ 15″ E., 6 miles north-east of Karnál town. Population (1868) 5163; (1881) 4725, namely, Muhammadans, 2550; Hindus, 2174; and Jain, 1. The town is the residence of a distinguished Pathán family, whose head enjoys the revenues of the neighbourhood as *jágír*, and bears the title Nawáb, with jurisdiction as honorary magistrate on his own estates. The

town is enclosed by an old masonry wall, now in a dilapidated state, which the municipality is unable to keep in proper repair for want of funds. The public buildings consist of a police station, dispensary, and school. Fine orchards exist close to the town. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £150; in 1882-83, £191, or 9¾d. per head of the town population.

Kunsá.—Town in Rái Bareli District, Oudh, situated 16 miles from Rái Bareli town, on the road from Gurbakshganj to Bachhrawan. Lat. 26° 20′ 15″ N., long. 81° 3′ 55″ E. Almost purely a Hindu town, the majority of the inhabitants being Bráhmans. Population (1869) 5352; (1881) 4807, namely, Hindus, 4638, and Muhammadans, 169.

Kúnúr.—Mountain sanitarium and town in the District of the Nílgiri Hills, Madras Presidency.—*See* COONOOR.

Kupili. — Town and seaport in Chípurupalle *táluk*, Vizagapatam District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 18° 10′ 30″ N., long. 83° 52′ 40″ E. Population (1881) 1942; number of houses, 377. Salt station, yielding a revenue of about £15,000 per annum.

Kurái. — North-western *tahsíl* or Sub-division of Ságar (Saugor) District, Central Provinces. Area, 936 square miles, with 1 town and 482 villages; number of houses, 26,332. Population (1881) 116,767, namely, males 61,440, and females 55,327; average density, 124·75 persons per square mile. Total adult agricultural population, 34,844, or 29·8 per cent. of the entire population of the *tahsíl*. Average area of cultivated and cultivable land, 13 acres per head. Of the total area of 936 square miles, 190 square miles are held revenue free, and 746 square miles are assessed for Government revenue. Of the assessed area, 358 square miles are returned as cultivated, 282 square miles as cultivable, and 106 square miles as uncultivable waste. Total Government revenue, including local rates and cesses levied on land, £11,174, or an average of 11⅝d. per cultivated acre. Total rental paid by cultivators, £27,324, or 2s. 2⅞d. per cultivated acre. In 1883, the *tahsíl* contained 1 criminal and 2 civil courts; number of police stations, 3, with 15 outposts; strength of regular police, 139 men; village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 405.

Kurái.—Town in Ságar (Saugor) District, Central Provinces, and head-quarters of Kurái *tahsíl*. Lat. 24° 2′ 30″ N., long. 78° 22′ 30″ E.; 34 miles north-west of Ságar town. From the Gaulís Kurái passed to the Muhammadan rulers of Delhi. Aurangzeb united the *parganá* of Kurái with that of Garolá, and gave the tract in *jágír* to a Dángi chief, who built the fort. In 1753, Govind Pandit, on behalf of the Peshwá, took possession of Kurái. He enlarged the fort, and dug a large well within it; and built on its south-west side a temple, still in good preservation, isolating the whole by water from a lake he had excavated. The fort consists of round towers connected by curtain walls, and

encloses 11 acres. Within it stands the *tahsíl* court-house, also built by Govind Pandit.

Kurái formed part of the country ceded by the Peshwá to the British in 1818. In July 1857, the Rájá of Bhánpur invested Kurái, on which the *tahsíldár* surrendered the fort and joined the rebels. They held the place till February 1858, when Sir Hugh Rose defeated the Rájá of Bhánpur at Barodiá Nawánagar. The ravages of the rebels greatly depressed the country round Kurái; but since the new Settlement, marked improvement has taken place.

The town is well laid out, with wide streets, and substantial houses. North of the fort are some handsome Hindu temples. Large quantities of cattle are brought to the weekly markets, chiefly from the Native State of Gwalior; and the whole of the meat supplied by the commissariat to the European troops at Ságar, Jabalpur (Jubbulpore), and Nowgong comes from Kurái. The town has a police station-house, a post-office, and 3 schools, one being for girls. Population (1872) 4965; (1881) 5370, chiefly Dángís, a class of agricultural Rájputs. Classified according to religion, there were, in 1881—Hindus, 3856; Jains, 745; Sikhs, 101; Muhammadans, 665; and Christians, 3. Municipal income (1882–83) £1090, of which £571 was derived from taxation, principally octroi; average incidence of taxation, 2s. 1½d. per head.

Kuram.—A district of Afghánistán, consisting of the valley of the river KURAM as far as British territory. The length of the district, until 1880 a sub-division of Kábul Province, is about 60 miles, and its breadth varies from 3 to 10 miles.

The scenery is exceedingly fine, and in some places grand, the Safed Koh forming a magnificent background to a picture of quiet beauty. The Kuram river runs through green fields and sunny orchards, and numerous villages dot the plain. The principal spur from the Safed Koh range is the Peiwár ridge, which runs south and divides into two branches, one of which is parallel to the Kuram. The other rivers of the district are the Hariab, Keria, Mangal, Ahmad Khel, Kirmán, and Karamana. The chief tribes inhabiting the Kuram valley are the Bangash, Túrí, Jájí, and Mangal. The two last, who are semi-independent, inhabit the upper portion of the district towards the crest of the Peiwár Kotal, and south of Chamkaní. The numbers of these tribes are thus estimated:—

Mangals, . . .	at 8,000	fighting men,	by Lumsden.
Jájís, ...	,, 800	,,	,,
Bangash, . . .	,, 5,620	,,	by Edwardes.
Túrís, ...	,, 5,000	,,	,,
Total, . .	19,420	fighting men.	

The total number of inhabitants has been estimated at 77,680.

Although Kuram lies in the midst of an Afghán population, all its tribes belong to the Shiá sect.

The chief crops of Kuram are rice, cotton, barley, and *joár*. Apples, pomegranates, melons, quinces, and other fruits are also grown. Water is abundant everywhere, and irrigation is rendered easy by the presence of the Kuram and the numerous hill torrents which feed it. A large unirrigated tract in the north is known as the Máidán. All the irrigated lands in the district lie close to the banks of the Kuram; and whenever these fields are flooded, it is a common practice to plant rows of willows as thickly as they will stand, and keep them cut down to 2 or 3 feet in height for some years. These spreading form a complete barrier, which in ordinary floods catches and retains rich deposits of alluvial soil, on which as soon as it is dry, a crop is sown, while each succeeding flood only adds to the depth of the deposit. Thus the cultivator only loses one crop, and in a very few years regains a fine field supported on a living wall of willows.

The slopes of the Safed Koh range are clothed with pine forests, and the timber is floated down the Kuram to Bannu for the use of the British Forest Department.

The route through the Kuram valley is perhaps the best of all the roads between Afghánistán and the Punjab, both on account of its easiness and the abundance of water, fuel, etc. procurable.

The number of villages in Kuram is 36; the largest contains a population of about 1000. The fort of the governor is at Ahmadzái.

The following particulars are given by General Macgregor (from Major Plowden's compilation) as to the administration of Kuram. The district was formerly divided in 29 sub-divisions, each of 720 acres, the whole paying an aggregate land-tax of £6250. The miscellaneous revenue is raised by a poll-tax on Hindus, each male adult paying a sum of about 6s.; by taxes on animals sold; and by transit duties. The Túrís are great traders, and own a large stock of pack-mules; there are no camels or pack-bullocks in Kuram. Fruit, rice, and *dál* are brought down to British territory, the traders lading Kohát salt for the return journey. Habíb-Kala in Peiwár is the chief centre of trade. The customs of the people do not differ materially from those of other parts of Afghánistán. In cases of murder, blood is either taken for blood, or £36 and a bride (valued at £18) are accepted as compensation. Peace is not held to be complete until a bride has been given. Semi-military and police posts are—Kapián, Ahmadi-Shama, Balesh Khel, Fort Kuram, and Peiwár.

The Kuram valley is historical as the starting-point of General Roberts' expedition in the war between England and Afghánistán, 1878–79. On the 11th of September in the latter year, the murder of our envoy Sir Louis Cavagnari was followed by General Roberts'

seizure of the Shutargardan pass, and an advance by the Kuram route to Kábul.

Kuram.—River in Afghánistán and Bannu District, Punjab; rises in the Safed Koh mountains beyond the frontier, and, before reaching British territory, waters the fertile Kuram valley in the independent hills. Then it rushes through the mountains held by various Wazírí clans, and entering Bannu District at its north-west corner, 5 miles from the cantonment and civil station, finally falls into the Indus some 4 miles south of Isákhel, after receiving the waters of the Tochi a few miles east of Lakki, in lat. 32° 37′ N., and long. 71° 22′ E.

The rich deposits brought down by the Kuram render its waters peculiarly valuable for irrigation, but unwholesome for drinking. The Bannuchis, however, draw their whole domestic supply from this source. Immediately below the hills, boulders line the shallow bed; farther down, the stream cuts itself a deep channel through the yielding banks of clay; while near the Indus it loses its force, and widens out over a spreading and ill-defined basin. Throughout its course in British territory, it is used for irrigation, and a large area is constantly flooded by means of side-cuts; so much so that but little water reaches the Indus, except during the rainy season. The depth varies from 2 feet in the dry months to 6 or 7 feet in the floods. In its diagonal course of about 60 miles through Bannu District, the Kuram falls fully 700 feet. It is subject to sudden and prolonged freshes; and being nowhere yet bridged, crossing is sometimes impossible for several days at a time. During the Afghán campaign a military detachment has been known to be detained on the bank a week, unable to reach the cantonment a mile distant on the opposite side of the river. Between June and September, the only tolerably safe and practicable ford for laden camels is that opposite the cantonment. A bridge at this point is the great commercial and military want of Bannu District. In parts, however, quicksands render the passage difficult or dangerous. Bannu District owes almost all its fertility to the Kuram and its tributary the Gambíla (Tochí). Area annually irrigated, about 60,000 acres.

Kurambranád.—*Táluk* or Sub-division of Malabar District, Madras Presidency. Area, 408 square miles. Population (1881) 261,024, namely, 129,394 males and 131,630 females, dwelling in 57 villages, containing 48,440 houses. Hindus numbered 196,383; Muhammadans, 64,245; Christians, 394; and 'others,' 2. There were, in 1883, 2 civil and 2 criminal courts; police circles, 10; regular police, 91 men. Land revenue, £21,304.

Kurandwád.—Native State under the South Maráthá Agency of the Bombay Presidency.—*See* KURUNDWAD.

Kurántadih.—Eastern *tahsíl* or Sub-division of Gházipur District, North-Western Provinces, consisting of the *parganás* of Muhammad-

ábád, Garha, Dihma, and Zahúrábád. Area, according to the latest official statement (1881), 404·6 square miles, of which 302·2 square miles are cultivated, 29·3 square miles cultivable, and 73·1 square miles uncultivable waste. Population (1872) 236,800; (1881) 286,022, namely, males 142,820, and females 143,202. Increase of population during the nine years, 49,222, or 20·8 per cent. Classified according to religion, there were, in 1881—Hindus, 258,814; Muhammadans, 27,202; and Christians, 6. Of the 804 villages, 646 contained less than five hundred inhabitants in 1881. Two towns, Narhi and Bahádurganj, contained upwards of five thousand inhabitants. Government land revenue (1881), £29,943; total Government revenue, including rates and cesses, £33,704; total rental paid by cultivators, including cesses, £61,408.

Kurántadih.—Head-quarters of Kurántadih *tahsíl*, Gházipur District, North-Western Provinces; situated in lat. 25° 35′ N., and long. 84° 1′ 20″ E., 26 miles from Gházipur town, with which it is connected by a metalled road. There is no village here, and no population except the Government officials, who, with their families, number about 40. The public buildings consist of a *tahsíli*, *munsifi*, police station, and Anglo-vernacular school. The head-quarters of the *tahsíl* were moved here from Muhammadábád in 1876. Until 1873, Kurántidih was the seat of a branch of the Government stud department.

Kurara.—Town in Hamírpur *tahsíl*, Hamírpur District, North-Western Provinces; situated on the Kálpi road, 10 miles west of Hamírpur town. Population (1872) 4897; (1881) 3612. Police station, post-office, village school. A considerable trade in grain, cotton, and the scarlet *al* dye is carried on at the Sunday and Thursday markets. A house-tax is raised for police and sanitary purposes.

Kuráuli.—Town in Máinpuri *tahsíl*, Máinpuri District, North-Western Provinces; situated on the road from Máinpuri to Etah, 14 miles north of the former town. Kuráuli is an open and well-built modern town, owing its rise to the growing prosperity of the Rájá and his family, who have a handsome mansion with large gardens in its midst. Four mosques; 9 Hindu temples, the most striking built by the late Rájá, with rest-house for pilgrims attached; handsome masonry bathing tank. Post-office, police station, *tahsíli* school. Population (1872) 4071; (1881) 6776, namely, Hindus, 5454; Muhammadans, 1152; and 'others,' 170. The late Rájá took great interest in education, especially of females, and did much to encourage improvements in the town. He died in 1880, leaving an adopted minor son, and the estate is now (1884) under the Court of Wards. A local family of oculists have a high reputation for the cure of cataract.

Kurauna.—*Parganá* in Misrikh *tahsíl*, Sítápur District, Oudh.

Area, 46 square miles, or 29,329 acres, of which 16,986 acres are cultivated, 7024 acres cultivable, 2467 *muáfi*, and 2852 uncultivable waste. Population (1869) 14,807; (1881) 16,283, namely, males 8664, and females 7619. Incidence of land-tax, 2s. 0¼d. per acre of total area, 2s. 3½d. per acre of assessed area, 3s. 2⅞d. per acre of cultivated area. Of the 51 villages comprising the *parganá*, 32 are held by Janwár Rájputs, 10 by Muhammadans, 3 by Káyasths, and 2 by Gosains, while the remaining 4 are newly formed grants. The *parganá* was formerly occupied by Pásís, who were driven out 400 years ago by an invasion of Janwár Rájputs, whose descendants still own the greater part of the *parganá*.

Kurg.—Province of Southern India.—*See* COORG.

Kurha Keshupur (or *Darshannagar*).—Town in Faizábád (Fyzábád) District, Oudh; situated 4 miles from Faizábád town, on the road to Akbarpur. Population (1869) 2730; (1881) 3167, viz. 2726 Hindus and 441 Muhammadans.

Kurhurbaree.—Coal-field in Hazáribágh District, Bengal.—*See* KARHARBARI.

Kurigrám.—Sub-division of Rangpur District, Bengal. Area, 937 square miles; number of villages, 2386; houses, 70,828. Population (1881)—males 268,054, and females 266,900; total, 534,954. Classified according to religion, there were—Muhammadans, 318,303; Hindus, 216,596; Christians, 14; Buddhists, 10; Jains, 22; and 'others,' 9. Average density of population, 571 persons per square mile; villages per square mile, 2·55; persons per village, 224; houses per square mile, 77; persons per house, 7·5. This Sub-division comprises the three police circles (*thánás*) of Barábárí, Nageswari, and Ulipur. In 1883 it contained 2 civil and 1 criminal court, with a regular police force of 71 officers and men, and 1205 rural police or village watchmen.

Kurigrám.—Village and head-quarters of Kurigrám Sub-division, Rangpur District; situated on the right bank of the Dharlá river, and a station on the Kauniya and Dharlá Railway. A tobacco and jute mart.

Kurivikulam.—Town in Sankaranaianárkoil *táluk*, Tinnevelli District, Madras District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 9° 10′ 30″ N., long. 77° 42′ E. Population (1881) 6268; number of houses, 1499. Hindus number 6078; Christians, 174; and Muhammadans, 16.

Kurla.—Municipal town in Thána District, Bombay Presidency. Situated on the eastern extremity of Salsette Island, at the point where it is connected with the island of Bombay by the Sion Causeway. Also a station on the Great Indian Peninsula Railway. The town has a post-office, dispensary, and two large cotton mills, one of which, the 'Dharmsey Poon-jabhoy,' is the largest in India. Population (1881)

9715. Hindus numbered 6793; Muhammadans, 1320; Christians, 1369; Pársís, 81; Jains, 30; and 'others,' 122. Municipal income (1882), £498; expenditure, £569; incidence of taxation, 9½d.

Kurmatúr.—Town in Travancore State, Madras Presidency. Lat. 9° 4′ N., long. 76° 43′ 30″ E.

Kurnool.—District and town, Madras Presidency.—*See* KARNUL.

Kurpa.—District and town, Madras Presidency.—*See* CUDDAPAH.

Kurrachee.—District, *tahsíl*, and town, Sind, Bombay Presidency. —*See* KARACHI.

Kursanda.—Town in Sadábád *tahsíl*, Muttra (Mathura) District, North-Western Provinces; situated on the Agra and Alígarh road, 8 miles north of the Jumna, 3 miles south-west of Sadábád, and 20 miles south-east of Muttra town. Lat. 27° 23′ 45″ N., long. 78° 3′ 24″ E. Population (1872) 7145; (1881) 6018, namely, Hindus, 5625, and Muhammadans, 393. Area of town site, 82 acres. The town was founded by a Ját named Púran Chand, who bestowed a portion of the land on his family priest. Their descendants are still in possession, and Játs and Bráhmans form the principal inhabitants and landholders. The town contains four small temples; and markets are held twice a week, on Sunday and Thursday. During the Mutiny, two of the local landholders were hanged for participation in the sack of Sadábád.

Kursat.—Town in Unao District, Oudh; situated 10 miles north of Safipur, and 4 miles north of Asiwán. Lat. 26° 52′ 10″ N., long. 80° 27′ 10″ E. Population (1869) 5373; (1881) 5755, namely, Hindus, 3960, and Muhammadans, 1795. Area of town site, 100 acres. Vernacular school; weekly market, with sales averaging £223 a year. Founded by one Kuds-ud-dín, in the reign of Bábar, the previous inhabitants, a tribe called Shahíds, being expelled and their village laid in ruins. The descendants of the conquerors still hold the land.

Kursat Kalán.—Town in Hardoi District, Oudh; situated near the right bank of the Sai, 9 miles north-east from Mallánwán. A fine village with a population (1869) of 2688, and (1881) 2621, chiefly Kanaujia Bráhmans. Bi-weekly market. Held by the Thatheras till about the middle of the 12th century, when a body of Kurmís drove them out. Their descendants still hold the village.

Kurseli.—Town in Hardoi District, Oudh; situated a little off the Piháni road, 11 miles north of Hardoi town. Population (1869) 2898; (1881) 3056, mostly Pásís. Said to have been founded about 400 years ago by Diwán Singh and Jagat Singh, Chamár Gaurs, the descendants of Kuber Sáh, the conqueror of the Thatheras.

Kurseong.—Sub-division and village in Darjíling District, Bengal.—*See* KARSIANG.

Kursi.—*Parganá* in Fatehpur *tahsíl*, Bara Banki District, Oudh. Area, 89 square miles, of which 47 are cultivated. Population (1869)

37,459; (1881) 35,814, namely, males 18,813, and females 17,001. Land revenue assessment, £7055; average incidence, 2s. 5½d. per acre of total area, 3s. 1d. per acre of assessed area, and 4s. 8½d. per acre of cultivated area. Number of villages, 91; principally owned by Sayyids and Rájputs.

Kursi.—Town in Fatehpur *tahsíl*, Bara Banki District, Oudh, and head-quarters of Kursi *tahsíl*; 18 miles from Bara Banki town. Population (1869) 3650; (1881) 3154, of whom more than half are Musalmáns. Police station; Government school; registration office; post-office. Weaving and cotton-cleaning trades flourish, but no *bázár* is held here. Crossed by two roads—one running north from Lucknow, which passes on to Mahmudábád and Biswán in Sítápur District; and the other west from Bara Banki, which joins the imperial road from Lucknow to Sítápur. The town has long belonged to Musalmán proprietors; but it is said to have been built by two Bhars, Khushál and Mithán, one of whom gave his name to Kursi, and the other to the village of Mithán, some 4 miles east of it.

Kurtkoti.—Town in the Gadag Sub-division of Dhárwár District, Bombay Presidency; situated 25 miles east of Hubli, and 8 miles south-west of Gadag, in lat. 15° 45′ N., and long. 75° 4′ E. Population (1881) 4516.

Kuruda-male (or *Kúdu-male*, 'Hill of Assembly').—Hill in Kolár District, Mysore State. Lat. 13° 12′ N., long. 78° 25′ E.; 3312 feet above sea-level. At the foot of the hill are the ruins of several large temples, with sculpture ascribed to Jakanáchari, but apparently restored at a later date. The principal are those of Someswara and Ganesha. The figure of Ganesha is of huge size. Tradition asserts that here the ancient gods mustered their forces for the attack on Tripura.

Kurugodu.—Town in Bellary *táluk*, Bellary District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 15° 20′ N., long. 76° 53′ E. Population (1881) 2723; number of houses, 747. Remarkable for the number of temples in its vicinity, among them a very fine new one dedicated to Siva, and containing a colossal representation of the bull *Nandi*, a monolith. Village school.

Kurukshetra.—Holy tract and place of pilgrimage in Ambálá (Umballa) and Karnál Districts, Punjab; embracing the country lying west and south-west of the town of Thánesar as its centre. The name derives its origin from Kuru, the ancestor alike of the Kauravas and Pándavas who figure in the *Mahábhárata*. Kuru became an ascetic upon the banks of the holy lake south of Thánesar; but the limits of the sacred tract cannot be exactly ascertained. According to popular belief, the Kurukshetra embraces 360 places of pilgrimage, and extends as far as the town of Jínd, 64 miles from Thánesar;

though General Cunningham believes that modern Bráhmans have unduly enlarged its boundaries to gratify the Sikh Rájá of Jínd, whose territories are thus included within the holy borders. Whatever be the precise extent of the sacred tract, it is certain that the strip of country between the Saraswatí (Sarsuti) and the Ghaggar (the Saraswatí and Drishadvati of the Sanskrit epics) formed the original home of the Hindu faith, the earliest settlement of the Aryan colonists in India. Here their religion first assumed its present form ; and therefore the Kurukshetra and the river Saraswatí still attract worshippers from the remotest parts of Bengal.

The ancient capital of Kurukshetra was SRUGHNA, the site of which has been identified by General Cunningham with the village of SUGH, situated in a bend of the old bed of the Jumna, close to Jagádhri and Buríya. Srughna is mentioned by Hiuen Tsiang, the Chinese pilgrim of the 7th century, as a town $3\frac{1}{2}$ miles in circuit, the capital of a kingdom, and the seat of considerable learning, both Buddhistic and Bráhmanical. He describes the kingdom of Srughna as extending to the mountains on the north, and to the Ganges on the east, with the Jumna flowing through the centre.

The towns of Thánesar and Pihoia are the chief centres of pilgrimage, but minor shrines line the bank of the river for many miles. At Thánesar, as many as 100,000 persons sometimes assemble on the occasion of an eclipse of the sun, and treble that number bathe annually in a tank filled from the Sarsuti (Saraswatí). The great conflict between the Pándavas and the Kauravas was fought out in the surrounding country; and the *Mahábhárata* keeps alive the memory of all the most famous scenes in the minds of Hindu votaries, who regard the Kurukshetra as the Holy Land of their religion.

Kurumba.—A primitive tribe of South India, Madras Presidency. The Kurumbas are believed to have sprung from a race of nomadic shepherds, one of the great Dravidian family which inhabited the Peninsula of South India before the historical period. They founded a powerful kingdom, known as Kuramba-bhúmi, occupying the tract along the sea-coast from the Pennár to the Pálár rivers, and extending inland to the Western Gháts. This kingdom was finally overthrown by Adondai, the illegitimate son of Kulattungi Chola ; and the conquered country passed thenceforth by the name of Tondamandalam. The power of the Kurumbas probably survived longest in the North Karnátik, particularly in the hills. The Kurumbas themselves have lost all traces of their ancient civilisation, and retain no recollection of their previous history. At the present day they are a tribe of shepherds, scattered through the Districts of Malabar, Coimbatore, Cuddapah, Bellary, Tanjore, Trichinopoli, the Nílgiris, Mysore,

and Pudukota State. The Census of 1881 returned the total number of Kurumbas throughout the whole of Southern India as only 3801, of whom as many as 3601 were found in the petty State of Pudukota. The Kurumbas in the British Districts and Mysore were apparently enumerated among the low-caste Hindus.

The Kurumbas are small in stature, uncouth, and squalid. They wear their hair matted and straggling, sometimes tied into a knot with a piece of cord on the crown or back of the head, with the ends hanging down. The men have scarcely any moustache or whiskers, and only a scanty beard. Their clothing consists of a piece of cloth passed between their legs. Some of the women wear a square cloth which reaches from the arm to the knee; others have only a waist-cloth. The Kurumbas profess to worship Siva, and occasionally the women mark their forehead with the Siva spot. The tribe has no special ceremonies or rites at birth or marriage. The dead are burned, and the ashes are left to be scattered by the wind. Mr. Metz describes the language as a corruption of Kánarese, with Támil words intermixed. Dr. Caldwell, however, speaks of it as 'rude Támil.' The Mysore Kurumbas speak old Kánarese.

Kurundwád. — Native State under the Political Agency of the Southern Maráthá Country, Bombay Presidency. This State at present consists of two divisions, one belonging to the elder ruler of Kurundwád, and the other to the younger chiefs. The elder division comprises two towns, Kurundwád and Tikota, and 37 villages. Of these, Tikota and Wadegáon—the former in Kaládgi, and the latter in Sátára District—are quite isolated from the main *jágír*, of which 25 villages lie close to and south of the town of Belgaum, while the remaining 10 lie in the valley of the Kistna intermixed with British territory and with the territory of the Kolhápur, Sángli, and Múraj States. The junior division comprises 34 villages, 17 in the neighbourhood of and mostly to the south of Belgaum, 15 on the borders of the Nizám's Dominions and to the east of Sholápur District, and 2 within the limits of the Kolhápur State.

The elder chief's estate contains an area of 182 square miles, and a population (1881) of 35,187 persons, namely, 17,636 males and 17,551 females, occupying 6577 houses. Hindus numbered 28,558; Muhammadans, 3409; and 'others,' 3220. The staple products are millet, rice, wheat, gram, and cotton. Coarse country cloth and articles of native female apparel are the principal manufactures. The Kurundwád State was a grant made before 1772 by the Peshwá to a member of the Patwardhan family, on condition of military service. In 1811 the State was divided, a half share being given by the Peshwá to Ganpat Ráo, the nephew of Nilkant Ráo, the original grantee. In 1855 a further division of Kurundwád was effected by

the British Government between Raghunáth Ráo and his nephew Ganpat Ráo, and younger brothers Vináyak Ráo and Trimbak Ráo. The latter dying in 1869 without male issue, the whole of his share of the *jágír* was bestowed on the two younger chiefs, with the exception of the share he possessed in the *inám* estate, which reverted to the elder chief. The total yearly tribute received by the British Government from Kurundwád amounts to £961. The present (1881-82) senior chief is Chintáman Ráo Raghunáth, a Hindu of the Brahmán caste. He is twenty-seven years of age, and administers his estate in person. The elder chief of Kurundwád ranks as a first-class *sardár*, and has power to try his own subjects for capital offences without the express permission of the Political Agent. He enjoys an estimated gross revenue of £11,000, and maintains a military force of 268 men. His family hold a *sanad* of adoption, and the succession follows the rule of primogeniture. In 1882-83 there were five schools with 165 scholars, besides seven indigenous schools.

The share of the younger chiefs contains an area of 114 square miles, and a population (1881) of 25,811 persons, namely, 13,052 males and 12,759 females, occupying 3557 houses. Hindus numbered 20,632; Muhammadans, 2548; and 'others,' 2631. The arrangement entered into by the senior branch is considered as binding upon the younger chiefs. The present (1881-82) head of the younger chiefs is Ganpat Ráo Harihar. He is thirty-nine years of age, and administers his estate in person. He maintains a military force of 304 men, and has an estimated gross revenue (1882) of £10,283. In 1882-83 there were two vernacular schools.

Kurundwád.—Chief town of the State of Kurundwád, in the South Maráthá Country, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 16° 41′ N., long. 74° 38′ E. Population (1881) 7138. Hindus numbered 5278; Muhammadans, 1064; Jains, 791; Christians, 1; and Pársís, 4. Situated on the right bank of the Pánchgangá river, close to its junction with the Kistna. The town is the residence of the representatives of both branches of the ruling family, and was formerly well protected, but the defences are now mostly in ruins. It has no public buildings of any interest, save the palace of the chiefs, and a temple dedicated to Vishnu. Outside the town, and distant about a mile, is a fine masonry bathing *ghát* on the Kistna. The water-supply is dependent on the Pánchgangá, from which a windmill pump raises the water for the town. There is a charitable dispensary. The town is not a part of the *jágír*, having been given in *inám* to an ancestor of the present chiefs by the Rájá of Kolhápur. It possesses a municipality.

Kurwái.—Native State under the Bhopál Agency of Central India. Lat. 23° 21′ to 24° 14′ N., and long. 77° 26′ to 78° 20′ E. The State is situated on the river Betwá, between Ságar (Saugor) and Sironj. Chief

products, opium and grain. The founder of the principality was an Afghán adventurer, named Muhammad Dalel Khán. He first entered the service of the Rájá of Datia, and afterwards, about 1726, that of the Rájá of Básoda. By dint of his valour, he became commandant of the Básoda troops; and, on the death of the chief of Kurwái, he seized that territory, and built the fort of Kurwái. During the decline of the Mughal Empire, the State increased greatly in consideration and prosperity. The chief rendered assistance to General Goddard in 1783, and in consequence suffered severely afterwards from the enmity of the Maráthás; in 1818 he applied to the British Resident at Bhopál for protection, which was accorded, and thenceforward he remained undisturbed in his possessions. The chief, Muhammad Najaf Khán, bears the title of Nawáb. The area of the State is about 139 square miles, with a population in 1881 of 24,631, of whom 12,622 were males and 12,009 females; density of the population, 176 persons per square mile. Hindus numbered 20,788; Muhammadans, 3609; Jains, 24; and aboriginal tribes, 216. The revenue is estimated at £10,000. The Nawáb keeps up a force of 40 horse and 150 infantry.

Kurwái.—Chief town of the Kurwái State, under the Bhopál Agency, Central India. Lat. 24° 7′ N., long. 78° 5′ E. Situated on the Betwá river. The fort, built of red granite and surrounded by a ditch, is on an eminence to the east of the town. The houses in the town are of stone set in mud and roofed with stone slabs, which are obtained in abundance from the quarries in the vicinity. Native weapons, such as matchlocks and knives, are manufactured, and are much prized in the neighbouring villages. Dispensary and post-office. Population (1881) from 3000 to 5000.

Kusbhadrá.—A deltaic distributary of the Koyákhái branch of the Mahánadi, which, after throwing off a branch, the Práchí, falls into the Bay of Bengal a little south of the Kanárak temple, in lat. 19° 51′ N., and long. 86° 4′ E.

Kushtiá (*Kooshtea*).—Sub-division of Nadiyá District, Bengal. Lat. 23° 42′ to 24° 9′ N., and long. 88° 47′ to 89° 24′ 45″ E. Area, 558 square miles, with 861 villages or towns, and 71,811 houses. Population (1881) 446,694, namely, males 216,617, and females 230,077; proportion of males in the total population, 48·5 per cent. The most densely populated Sub-division in the District, the average density being 800 persons per square mile, or 1 to every 1·25 acre; villages per square mile, 1·54; persons per village, 519; houses per square mile, 133·7; persons per house, 6·2. This Sub-division comprises the 6 police circles (*thánás*) of Daulatpur, Náopárá, Kushtiá, Kumárkhálí, Bháluká, and Bhaduliá. In 1883 it contained 4 civil and 2 magisterial courts, a regular police force of 120 men, besides

a village watch numbering 913. The Northern Bengal State Railway, from the Eastern Bengal Railway station at Parodah to Damukdiha on the Ganges, intersects the Sub-division. The population is almost entirely agricultural, but a considerable river trade is also carried on.

Kushtiá.—Town, municipality, and head-quarters of Kushtiá Sub-division and police circle (*tháná*) in Nadiyá District, Bengal; situated on the right bank of the Padmá or Ganges. Lat. 23° 54′ 55″ N., long. 89° 10′ 5″ E. Population (1872) 9245, namely, 4674 males and 4571 females; (1881) 9717, namely, males 4778, and females 4939. Classified according to religion, there were, in 1881—Muhammadans, 5669; Hindus, 4023; 'others,' 25. Area of town site, 3200 acres. Municipal income (1876–77), £279; (1883–84), £524; rate of municipal taxation, 1s. 0½d. per head. The principal seat of river trade in the District, and an important station on the Eastern Bengal Railway. Until the extension of the line to Goálandá in 1870, Kushtiá was the terminus of the railway, and the chief landing-place for jute and other products of Eastern Bengal. The silting up of the river, and the extension of the line eastwards down the Ganges to Goálandá in Farídpur District, has removed much of the traffic of Kushtiá to the new terminus.

Kusí (*Koosy*).—River of Northern Bengal, rising among the Nepál Himálayas in lat. 28° 25′ N., and long. 86° 11′ E. It first takes a course south-west for about 60 miles, then south and south-east for 160 more, during which it receives on its left bank its two great tributaries the Aran and Tambar. It leaves the mountains in lat. 26° 45′ N., and long. 87° 13′ E., in a series of cataracts and rapids, and after a southerly course touches upon British territory in the extreme north-east of Bhágalpur District, at which point it is a large river nearly a mile wide. It here assumes the character of a deltaic stream, and runs a direct southerly course, with many bifurcations and interlacings, till, after receiving another considerable tributary on its left bank, the Ghugri, it finally falls into the left bank of the Ganges in lat. 25° 22′ 15″ N., and long. 87° 19′ E., after a total course of about 325 miles.

The Kusí is remarkable for the rapidity of its stream, the dangerous and uncertain nature of its bed, but chiefly for its constant westerly movement and the desolation caused by its floods. Tracts inundated by it lapse into sand and jungle, and in this way it has made a wilderness of about half the Madahpura Sub-division. In the early part of the 18th century, the Kusí river passed below Purniah town, but it has since worked westwards across about 50 miles of country, as indicated by now deserted channels, to its present line. Owing to these characteristics, its navigation is at all times of the year a matter of much difficulty. The channels of deep

water are constantly changing, new ones being yearly opened up, and old ones choked by vast sandbanks. The bed of the river is full of sunken trees or snags. Owing to the great velocity of the current, boats have frequently to wait several days for a favourable wind to help them up particular reaches of the river. They require to be preceded by a regular pilot, who goes some distance in advance, and selects the channel to be followed. The river is navigable all the year round, as far as the Nepál frontier, by boats of 9 or 10 tons burden.

According to a Hindu legend, this river is Kausiki, the daughter of Kusik, Rájá, King of Gadhí. Although the daughter of a Kshattriya, she was the wife of a Bráhman; and on giving birth to a son, who preferred the warlike exploits of his mother's race to the sacred duties of his father, she became changed into a river.

Kusiárá.—The most southerly of the two branches of the Surmá or Bárak river in Sylhet District, Assam. The point of bifurcation is at the village of Bhanga on the Cachar boundary. The Kusiárá, after receiving the waters of the Langai, Juri, and Manu rivers, takes the name of Bibiána, at Bahádurpur, where the old course of the Bárak river (now almost closed) bifurcates. Farther west, the waters of the Kusiárá or Bibiána meet those of the Surmá or northerly branch of the Bárak. The united stream takes various names at different parts of its course, and at length contributes to make up the estuary of the Meghná. The various portions of this river are navigable throughout the year by boats of 4 tons burden, and, except in the very driest season, by boats of 20 tons burden.

Kussowlee.—Town and cantonment in Simla District, Punjab.—*See* KASAULI.

Kutabdiá. — Island and lighthouse off the coast of Chittagong, Bengal. This and the neighbouring island of Maheskhál (Máskhál) bear a resemblance both in character and general appearance to the Gangetic SUNDARBANS, except that Kutabdiá does not contain much of the genuine Sundarban jungle, and Maheskhál has some rising grounds with large trees. The island was at one time nearly abandoned by its inhabitants, owing to its liability to incursions of the sea. Recently, large sums have been spent by Government as landlord to embank the island, and embankments upwards of 40 miles in extent have been constructed. A new land settlement was in progress in 1883, from which a large increase of revenue is expected. The island has already recovered its prosperity, and is well cultivated. Lighthouse situated on the west of the island; lat. 21° 52° 30″ N., long. 91° 53′ E. A police outpost station, under the Maheskhál *thání*, is located here.

Kutabnagar.—Town in Sítápur District, Oudh; situated on the high road, 18 miles west of Sítápur town. Population (1869) 2256; (1881) 2319. Bi-weekly market; vernacular school.

Kutabpur.—Village in Midnapur District, Bengal. The site of a considerable fair held in April or May in honour of the goddess Bráhmaní, which lasts for eight days.

Kutch.—State in Gujarát (Guzerát), Bombay Presidency.—*See* CUTCH.

Kuthár.—One of the Simla Hill States, under the political superintendence of the Government of the Punjab. Lat. 30° 55′ 30″ to 31° 1′ 30″ N., and long. 76° 57′ to 77° 1′ E. This little State has an area of only 7 square miles, and contains 150 villages or hamlets, with 863 houses. Population (1881) 3648, namely, Hindus, 3494; Muhammadans, 149; and Sikhs, 5. The State lies west of Subathu, and formerly included it, until the land for the cantonment was purchased by the Government. The founder of the State is said to have come from Rajaoli in the Jamu territory, forty-seven generations ago, whence he fled in fear of the Muhammadan invaders. In 1815, when the Gúrkhas were driven out of this country, the chief was replaced by the British, on the usual conditions of feudal service. The present Rána of Kuthár is Jai Chand, a Chandrabansi Rájput, born in 1844. The family suffix is Chand. The annual revenue is estimated at about £500; tribute of £100 is paid to the British Government.

Kutiyána (or *Katiána*).—Town in the State of Junágarh, Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency. Situated on the Bhádra river, 25 miles east of Porbandar. Lat. 21° 38′ N., long. 70° 10′ E. Population (1881) 8177. Muhammadans numbered 5895; Hindus, 2279; and Jains, 2. A fortified town, with an inner citadel. Old Kutiyána is about a mile to the west of the modern town.

Kutosan.—State, Mahi Kántha, Bombay Presidency.—*See* KATOSAN.

Kutru.—*Zamíndárí* estate in Bastar State, Central Provinces. Bounded on the north and west by the river Indrávatí; comprising 150 poor villages, scattered over a wild country. The proprietor is a Gond.

Kúttálam.—Town in Tinnevelli District, Madras Presidency.—*See* COURTALLUM.

Kuttiyádi.—Pass in the Western Gháts, Malabar District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 11° 41′ to 11° 43′ 45″ N., and long. 75° 49′ 30″ to 75° 52′ 15″ E. Leading from Kurumbranad *táluk* into the Wynád; steep, and only practicable for foot-passengers and beasts of burden.

Kuvam (*Cooum*).—River of Chengalpat District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 13° 1′ 30″ to 13° 4′ 10″ N., and long. 79° 48′ to 80° 20′ E. Notable only as being the stream on which the CITY of MADRAS stands. It flows from a tank in the Kanchipur *táluk*, and in the upper portion of its course it is utilized for irrigation; but within Madras municipal limits it is little more than a large open sewer.

Kwa. — Small river of British Burma, forming a portion of the boundary between the Arakan and Irawadi Divisions. It takes its rise in the western slopes of the Arakan Yoma range. After a south-south-west course of about 20 miles it turns to the west for about 10 miles, and then north-north-west for 10 more, when it opens out into the Bay of Bengal, a short distance below the village of Kwa. Its mouth forms a good harbour; but the entrance is rendered difficult by a bar of sand, on which during the ebb there are not more than 2¼ fathoms of water. It is affected by the tide as far as Than-ga-ta-ywa during neap, and Pein-ne-gon-ywa during spring tides, and small boats can ascend as high as the former with the flood. Larger boats cannot go farther up than On-min-ywa, which can be reached in one tide.

Kwa.—Township in Sandoway District, British Burma. There are 14 villages in the township. Area under cultivation (1881–82), 1024 acres, of which 902 acres were occupied by rice; other crops, sugar-cane, tobacco, cotton, and *sesamum*. Agricultural stock—horned cattle, 809; boats, 44; ploughs, 41. Gross revenue, £263.

Kwa.—Head-quarters of the southern township of Sandoway District, British Burma; on the right bank of the Kwa river, about a mile above its mouth. Lat. 17° 34′ N., long. 94° 39′ E. It has been much improved of late years, and is well laid out with broad straight roads, crossing at right angles, one of which has been extended to the neighbouring village of Ta-man-gon. The one or two tidal creeks which run up into the village are crossed by wooden foot-bridges, built principally by the people themselves, who also made the roads. The village is buried in a grove of fruit-trees—mango, tamarind, jack, cocoa-nut, etc. The houses are generally large and good, with timber posts, mat walls, and thatched roofs. A little trade during the favourable seasons of the year is carried on by sea with parts of Bassein District farther south, and Chinese junks occasionally anchor off the village. Court-house and police station. The population, including that of the adjoining villages of Ta-man-gon, Alay-ywa, and Khyin-tsú, was 2044 in 1881 (of whom nearly all were Burmese, with a few Chinese and natives of India, and only 9 Arakanese).

Kwon-chan-gon.—Village in the Pyawbwe township, Hanthawadi District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Pots, used in the manufacture of salt, are made here in considerable quantities. Population (1881), with the adjacent hamlet of Taw-pa-lwe, 1257.

Kyaik-kauk.—A pagoda standing on the Than-lyin Kún-dan, or stretch of low laterite hills, which extend from Than-lyin, or Syriam, to Kyouk-tan in British Burma. This pagoda, 131 feet in height and 1200 feet in circumference at the base, is constructed almost entirely of large blocks of laterite. It was built to enshrine two hairs, locally supposed to have been given by Gautama himself to a hermit on the

Martaban Hills, who afterwards presented them in 580 B.C. to Ze-ya-the-na, King of Than-lyin. In 223 B.C., eight Rahanda or Buddhist monks visited Than-lyin, bringing as offerings to Baw-ga-the-na, the last independent sovereign, a bone of Buddha's forehead and a tooth, one of which relics was enshrined in Than-lyin by the pious monarch.

Kyaik-than-lan.—The chief pagoda in Maulmain, Amherst District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. Founded in 875 A.D. by a hermit named Tha-gnya or Thí-la, and supposed to contain one of Gautama's hairs. Height, 152 feet; circumference at base, 377 feet.

Kyaik-tí-yo.—A peak, 3650 feet high, on the crest of the main dividing range between the rivers Sittaung and Salwín, in British Burma. Its most remarkable features are the numerous granitoid boulders scattered about the summit, some being balanced in a marvellous manner on the most prominent rocks. On the more striking of these, pagodas have been built, among which the Kyaik-tí-yo-ga-le and the Kyaik-ti-yo are the principal. The latter, about 15 feet high, is built on a huge egg-shaped boulder perched on the apex of a shelving and tabular rock which it actually overhangs by nearly one-half. Pious Buddhists believe that the pagoda is retained in its position solely by the power of the hair of Gautama enshrined in it. This relic is fabled to have been given to a hermit living on the mountain by Gautama himself.

Kyaik-to. — Town in the Kyaik-to-bi-lin township, Shwe-gyin District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. Lat. 18° N., long. 96° 50′ E. Head-quarters of Sittaung Sub-division; centre of a busy trade in cattle, unhusked rice, areca-nuts, fish, salt, piece-goods, cotton twist, and hardware. Court and circuit houses, police station, and good market. Population (1881) 1917. Local revenue (1881), in addition to imperial taxes, £287.

Kyan-kin.—Township in the extreme north of Henzada District, Irawadi Division, British Burma. Lat. 18° 11′ to 18° 30′ N., and long. 94° 56′ to 95° 20′ E. Extends westwards from the Irawadi to the crest of the Arakan Yoma range, which separates it from Sandoway, a District of Arakan. The greater portion of the country is hilly, and covered with dense forest. The township is divided into 7 revenue circles, containing in 1881 a total population of 34,618 persons; gross revenue, £7533; area under cultivation, 22,882 acres.

Kyan-kin. — Town in Henzada District, Irawadi Division, British Burma; situated in lat. 18° 19′ N., and long. 95° 17′ E., on the right bank of the Irawadi (Irrawaddy). Head-quarters of an Assistant Commissioner; contains a fine market, police station, and Public Works Department inspection bungalow. Considerable trade in rice. Population (1881) 7565. Local revenue (1881–82), £72.

Kyat.—River in British Burma.—*See* TAUNG-GNYO.

Kyauk-chaing-gale.—Village in the Lem-yet-ya township, Bassein District, Irawadi Division, British Burma; situated on a river of the same name, a tributary of the Bassein. Population (1881) 875.

Kyauk-gyí.—Township in the north of Shwe-gyin District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. Traversed from north to south by the Sittaung river; high mountainous country in the east; to the west extensive rice plains stretch between the hills and the river. Chief streams—the Kwún, the Youk-thwa-wa, and the Kyauk-gyí, all feeders of the Sittaung. This township is divided into 8 revenue circles. Total population (1881) 36,447. In 1881–82, the land revenue was £3256; fishery revenue, £698; capitation-tax, £2672; net-tax, £11; and local cess, £406; total gross revenue, £7043. The township contains 177 villages. Area under cultivation, 25,016 acres, of which 23,462 are under rice, 126 under sesamum, 23 under tobacco, and 17 under sugar-cane. Agricultural stock (1881–82)—horned cattle, 11,866; carts, 1531; and boats, 70.

Kyauk-gyí.—Village in the circle of the same name, Shwe-gyin District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. Lat. 18° 20′ N., long. 96° 40′ E. A busy town, but the dense forest and lofty rocks surrounding it give it a dreary and desolate appearance. Under native rule, Kyauk-gyí was a fortified place, and traces of the old stockade still remain; in 1809, it was attacked and destroyed by the Zeng-mai Shans. Population (1881) 1002.

Kyauk-pyú.—District in the Arakan Division, British Burma, lying between 18° 55′ and 19° 22′ N. lat., and between 93° 25′ and 94° E. long. Bounded on the north by Akyab District, and on the farther side of the Arakan Yoma Hills by Independent Burma; south by Sandoway; and on the west and south-west by the Bay of Bengal. Area, 4309 square miles. Population (1881) 149,303 persons. The administrative head-quarters are at KYAUK-PYU TOWN.

Physical Aspects.—Kyauk-pyú District consists of (1) a strip of the mainland extending from the An Pass, across the main range, to the Ma-í river, and (2) the large islands of RAMRI and MAN-AUNG, with many others to the south, lying off the coast of Sandoway. The mainland in the north and east is highly mountainous and forest-clad, and the lower portion is cut up into numerous islands by a network of tidal creeks. Between the mainland and Ramrí lies a group of islands separated by deep, narrow, salt-water inlets, forming the north-eastern shore of Kyauk-pyú harbour, which extends for nearly 30 miles along Ramrí in a south-easterly direction, and has an average breadth of 3 miles. In this harbour are several rocks—known as the 'Pagoda Rock,' the 'Terribles,' the 'Brothers,' the 'Sisters,' etc.—rising abruptly from the sea, and possessing no cultivable area.

The principal mountains in Kyauk-pyú District are the Arakan

Yomas, which send out spurs and sub-spurs almost to the sea-coast. This range is crossed within the limits of the District by two passes, the Da-let and the An. (*See* AN TOWN.) The former, during the first Burmese war, was proved to be impassable by troops; and, owing to the precipitous nature of its ascents and descents, it is but little used by the inhabitants of the country. The An Pass, an important trade route, rises to a height of 4664 feet above sea-level; on the east side it falls 3777 feet in 8 miles. A chain of low hills traverses Ramrí Island from north-west to south-east, the highest point being 3000 feet. There are no rivers of any importance in Kyauk-pyú District, but numerous small streams drain the larger islands; and the Da-let and the An, the chief streams on the mainland, are both navigable by large boats, the former for 25 and the latter for 45 miles of its course. Above these distances they become mere mountain torrents. The most important timber trees found in the District are—*pyin-gado* (Xylia dolabriformis, *Benth.*); *ka-gnyin* (Dipterocarpus alatus, *Roxb.*), furnishing wood-oil; three species of *kok-ko* (Albizzia procera, *Benth.*, A. Lebbek, *Benth.*, and A. stipulata, *Boivin.*), used for boats; *kyan* (Terminalia myriocarpa, *Heurch. and Müll.-Arg.*), and *ban-bwe* (Careya arborea, *Roxb.*), used for house-posts. The estimated area of uncultivable forest land is about 3740 square miles.

Kyauk-pyú contains numerous mud 'volcanoes,' from which marsh gas is frequently discharged. Occasional issues of flames rise to a great height, and illuminate the country around for miles. The largest 'volcano' is situated in the centre of Cheduba Island. Earth-oil (petroleum) wells exist in several places in the District, and for some years were farmed out by the State. The industry has of late received a fresh impulse from European capital and steam power. In 1880, the Boringa Company was formed, with steam machinery for sinking wells and pumping oil, a large refinery, and a staff of English and Canadian artificers. In 1883–84 the Company had 24 wells, the deepest of which is over 1200 feet. During 1883–84 the Company pumped from 10 wells a total of 234,300 gallons of crude oil. Of this, 65,450 gallons were refined, and the rest sold in the crude state. The gross yield of the Company's sales was about £6000. Another association, the Arakan Company, started during 1883–84 with steam machinery, and sank seven wells, the deepest of which was 400 feet. Five of these wells yielded in 1883–84 an output of 107,800 gallons, all of which was sold on the spot in the crude state. A smaller Company, called the Patrolia Company, obtained in 1883–84 a prospecting licence, and sank 10 wells, some to the depth of 400 and 500 feet. Unfortunately all these wells have yielded no oil. The natives, who own rights in several wells, do not use steam boring apparatus; but with windlasses, sheers, and local boring tools they

have sunk holes 250 and 350 feet deep. One Arakanese worker had a total output of 24,090 gallons, at an outlay of £76 for the year. Another Arakanese obtained 20,075 gallons, at an outlay of £34 for the year. The total output of the field, including the Boronga Company's wells, was 404,325 gallons in 1883-84. The other mineral products of Kyauk-pyú District include limestone, iron, and coal.

Population, etc.—By the Census of 1872, the population of Kyauk-pyú District was found to number 144,177 persons; in 1873-74 it had risen to 145,665; and in 1876-77, to 149,035. The Census of 1881 returns a population of 149,303; so that during the ten years ending 1881 there has been an increase of 5126. This increase is only part of a general increase which has taken place over the whole of Burma since British occupation. The number of males in 1881 was 74,476; females, 74,827: the whole inhabiting 937 towns and villages, and occupying 28,691 houses. Density of population, 34·6 persons per square mile; villages per square mile, ·2; houses per square mile, 7; persons per occupied house, 5·2.

In 1881 the population was thus divided — Arakanese, 118,944; Burmese, 14,907; Khyins, 11,617; Muhammadans, Hindus, etc., 3835. The Arakanese inhabit mainly Cheduba, Ramrí, and the coast of the mainland; the Burmese, the valley of the An; and the Khyins, the hill country. The Khins or Chins trace their origin to the neighbourhood of the Chindwin river. Only in Thayet-myo District are there more Chins than in Kyauk-pyú. Their habits and superstitions have been described already. (*See* BURMA.) The most remarkable of their customs is the habit of tattooing the faces of their young girls so completely as not to leave the eyelid free from the blue-black tracing. The Muhammadans are of mixed blood, descendants of the captives made by the Arakanese kings in their incursions into Bengal, and of the remnant of the followers of Sháh Shujá, the brother of Aurangzeb.

Classified according to age, there were, under 15 years—males, 28,792; and females, 27,351; total, 56,143. The analysis of the population shows that at every period up to 50, except between 12 and 20, the males exceed the females in number; but above 50, the proportion is reversed. Classified according to religion, there were — Buddhists, 133,732; Nat-worshippers, 11,042; Muhammadans, 4246; Hindus, 229; Christians, 54. As regards occupation, the Census distributes the male population into the following six main groups: — (1) Professional class, including all State officials and members of the learned professions, 1433; (2) domestic servants, inn and lodging-house keepers, 214; (3) commercial class, including bankers, merchants, carriers, etc., 2532; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, including shepherds, 28,170; (5) industrial class, including all manufacturers and artisans, 4827; and (6) indefinite and non-productive class, comprising general labourers,

male children, and persons of unspecified occupation, 37,300. The District does not contain a single town with 5000 inhabitants. Of its 937 villages, 711 have less than two hundred inhabitants; 199 from two to five hundred; 21 from five hundred to one thousand; 4 from one to two thousand; and 2 from two to five thousand. KYAUK-PYU, the head-quarters, situated on Ramrí Island, has a population of 3747; RAMRI, 3461; MAN-AUNG, 512; AN, 1492; MYE-BON, 546.

Agriculture, etc.—Out of 4309 square miles, the total area of the District, no less that 3740, including the surface covered by streams and creeks, are returned as absolutely uncultivable; and in 1882–83, only 163 were actually under tillage. There are 390 square miles of cultivable waste. The area under the principal crops in 1882–83 was—rice (including fallow land), 90,105 acres; sugar-cane, 1362; tobacco, 1828; *daní*, 2684; indigo, 65; fibres, 50; plantains, 960 acres. The rice land is not very productive, the average yield per acre being only 880 lbs.; the quantity exported varies considerably—in 1873–74, 1234 tons were shipped, and in 1881–82 only 1 cwt. The tobacco is grown chiefly for home consumption, and that produced in Cheduba is considered the finest. This is the only District of British Burma, except Akyab, in which indigo is grown. There are two pluckings for each sowing; and an acre of land sown with about 32 lbs. of seed will produce about 15 cwt. of dye. The selling price per lb. in the local markets is 2d., and the annual profit per acre is estimated at from £11 to £12. Cotton and sesamum are cultivated in the *taungya* or hill gardens. About 59 square miles of the total area are said to be suitable for tea plantation.

The produce per acre in 1882–83 was—rice, 902 lbs.; sugar, 1312 lbs.; tobacco, 820 lbs.; indigo, 246 lbs.; and fibres, 325 lbs. The price of the most important products (per *maund* of 80 lbs.) was in the same year—rice, 6s.; sugar, 12s.; indigo, 11s. Whilst the area under cultivation is extending and prices generally rising slowly, the rates of wages are rising somewhat more rapidly—skilled labourers now receive 3s. to 4s.; unskilled labourers, 9d. to 2s. per diem. The agricultural stock in 1882–83 comprised 24,635 buffaloes, 58,084 cows, bulls, and bullocks, 3987 pigs, 635 carts, 17,843 ploughs, and 4431 boats. The land is held chiefly by small proprietors, who work their holdings (which seldom exceed 5 acres) themselves. When land is let, the rent, as a rule, is paid in kind; and this in the case of rice land is very low, being about 10 bushels a season. The size of the holdings shows no tendency to increase, and it is exceedingly rare to find a landowner settled in a town and living on his rents.

Manufactures, etc.—The principal articles manufactured in the District, besides the silk and cotton cloths woven in almost every house, are salt, indigo, pottery, coarse sugar, and sesamum oil. The

District is one of the three chief salt manufacturing Districts of Burma, the other two being Amherst and Bassein. In the dry season, salt is made by boiling down sea-water on the banks of the numerous tidal creeks. The produce varies with the local demand for fishcuring, and with the quantity imported from foreign countries into Akyab and Bassein. In 1871-72, 11,681 cwt. of salt were manufactured; in 1872-73, 8057; and in 1873-74, 13,911 cwt. Earthen pots are made principally in the Ramrí, Myoma, Kaing-chaung, and Than-taung circles, and are sold on the spot to the salt-boilers. Both men and women are employed in this industry; and it has been calculated that it takes a man and a woman one month to make and burn from 800 to 1000 pots. Salt pots are sold at about 12s. the hundred, and others at half that rate. Sesamum oil is made during the hot season, and is expressed by a simple process, in which a large pestle is turned round and round in a mortar by a bullock. In some cases the oil runs off by a hole in the side of the mortar; but more often it is collected by the primitive method of dipping cloths into the mass, and wringing them out when saturated. One mill will turn out about 110 lbs. of oil a day. The oil not required for home consumption is exported principally to Akyab. Sugar-cane is grown extensively on Ramrí Island, and a coarse kind of sugar is made by crushing the cane in a press worked by a bullock or buffalo, and by boiling the juice down. Indigo is also manufactured in Ramrí.

The total length of water communications in Kyauk-pyú District is 894 miles; of third-class made roads, 152 miles. The steamers of the British India Steam Navigation Company call once a month on their way from Calcutta to Rangoon (*viâ* Akyab) and the Straits Settlements, and *vice versa;* and, from November to May, once a month on their way from Calcutta to Sandoway and back. During the rainy season, the mails are sent to and from Akyab in boats, which run through the creeks, thus avoiding the open sea.

Administration. — The imperial and provincial revenue (derived chiefly from land and capitation taxes) amounted in 1856-57 to £21,062, in 1866-67 to £28,640, in 1876-77 to £43,454, and in 1882-83 to £32,278. In 1881-82, a local revenue of £7190 was derived from port and municipal funds, a ten per cent. cess on the land and fishery dues, and other sources. In 1882-83 the land revenue was £14,894.

In Burmese times, the mainland portion of this District formed part of Arakan Proper, whilst Ramrí and Cheduba were separate and independent Governorships. After the country was ceded to the British, the two last were formed into Ramrí District, and placed under an officer styled Principal Assistant Commissioner; while the greater portion of the mainland constituted another District, similarly

ruled, called An. After this arrangement had lasted nearly thirty years, An was joined to Ramrí, and placed under a Deputy Commissioner, with his head-quarters at Kyauk-pyú; and in 1871–72 the area was increased by the addition in the north of four circles from Akyab. During the first few years of British occupation, the main body of the garrison was stationed at Sandoway, but subsequently it was removed to Kyauk-pyú, and finally withdrawn in 1855.

The District is divided into the 5 townships of CHEDUBA or MAN-AUNG, RAMRI, KYAUK-PYU, AN, and MYE-BON. The police force, under a superintendent, consisted in 1882–83 of 359 officers and men, of whom 25 are river police. These figures give a proportion of 1 policeman to every 12 square miles, and to every 416 persons. Total cost in 1882–83, £7561. The majority are located in the An township, which is traversed by the main road across the Yoma mountains into Upper Burma; in the north, Khyins are enlisted to keep the hillmen in order. In 1882, the average daily number of prisoners confined in the jail at Kyauk-pyú was 87; average annual cost per prisoner, £9, 8s. The hospital and charitable dispensary are also at Kyauk-pyú; the number of patients treated at the former, in 1882–83, was—indoor, 240; out-door, 1799. Most of the patients suffered from malaria, ague, and intermittent fevers. During the same year 4948 persons were vaccinated. As early as 1837, the State established a school, now classed as 'middle,' in the head-quarters town. In 1881–82 this school had 67 pupils on the rolls, and a daily average attendance of 61 pupils, all taught the English language. In 1881 there were 43 indigenous schools in the District. The Census Report of 1881 returned 11,308 boys and 2961 girls as under instruction; besides 23,607 males and 513 females able to read and write but not under instruction. [For further particulars regarding Kyauk-pyú District, see the *British Burma Gazetteer*, compiled by authority (Government Press, Rangoon, 1879), vol. ii. pp. 298–314. Also the *British Burma Census Report* for 1881, and the several Provincial Administration and Departmental Reports from 1880 to 1884.]

Kyauk-pyú.—Township in Kyauk-pyú District, Arakan Division, British Burma. Area, 383 square miles; occupying the north end of Ramrí Island, and a group of islands to the north-east formed by the numerous tidal creeks intersecting the coast. Head-quarters at KYAUK-PYU TOWN. The township comprises 22 revenue circles. Population (1881) 38,667, mainly Arakanese. Gross revenue, £10,075. Chief products—rice, indigo, salt, and sugar. For the manufacture of the last-named article, 681 mills were at work in 1881–82.

Kyauk-pyú.—Town, port, and head-quarters of Kyauk-pyú District, Arakan Division, British Burma; situated in the north of Ramrí Island, in lat. 19° 22′ N., and long. 93° 30′ E. Its name, 'White Stone,' is said

to be derived either from the white pebbly beach, or from a rock with a white pagoda at the entrance of the harbour. The former derivation is supported by the best authorities. When Arakan was ceded to the British in 1825, after the first Burmese war, a small fishing village occupied the site of the modern town of Kyauk-pyú, and Ramrí was then the chief civil station. Captain Pemberton, in his report on the Eastern Frontier of India (1835), states that the cantonments were built close to the sea-shore upon a sandy plain, bounded on the south-west by a low range of sandstone hills, 500 to 2000 feet in height, which breaks the severity of the monsoon. The whole tract behind the cantonments, as far as the mouth of the Oung-chaung creek on the east, was lined with mangrove jungles. Along the shores of this tidal inlet the salt of the Province was chiefly made; but the manufacture has never been extensively encouraged, as it is carried on far more cheaply on the western side of the Bay of Bengal. This description of Kyauk-pyú is still fairly accurate, but the barracks no longer exist, the troops having been finally withdrawn in 1855. The town contains court and circuit houses, jail, hospital, charitable dispensary, school, and market. The harbour extends for many miles along the east shore of Ramrí Island, but numerous sunken rocks render the approach dangerous. The channel, however, is well buoyed. The population in 1867 numbered 3689 persons; in 1881, 3747. The local revenue amounted in 1881–82 to £1045. In 1882–83 the imports were valued at £150, and the exports at £4962.

Kyaung-sún (or *Chaung-sun*).—Village in Bílú-gywon island, Amherst District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma; situated on the edge of the low hills forming the backbone of the island. The western portion is called Win-tsin, and the eastern Ka-raik-thit. In the former portion, an artificial reservoir with a water area varying from half to one square mile, has been made by throwing an embankment across a valley. The Government has made a bridged opening at the western end as an escape, to prevent the water overflowing the road crossing the embankment. Population (1881) 2021. Court-house and police station.

Kyelang (*Kailang*).—Village in the Láhul Sub-division of Kángra District, Punjab; situated on the right bank of the river Bhága, about four miles above its junction with the Chandra, and on the main trade route between the Rohtang and Bára Lácha passes. A post-office is maintained here during the summer months, and the village has been a station of the Moravian Mission for many years. The mission-house is a substantial residence, the lower part of which is used as a chapel. A school supported by a Government grant was formerly managed by the missionaries, who, although they have not met with much success in the matter of conversions to Christianity, are looked up

to as friends and protectors by every inhabitant of the valley. The school is now under Government management.

Kylása (*Kailasa*).—Hill in Vizagapatam District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 17° 47′ N., long. 83° 22′ E.; highest point, 1758 feet above sea-level. This hill was suggested at one time as a sanitarium for Bengal; and with that view a kind of hotel and one or two houses were built, the Rájá of Vizianágaram assisting the project with much liberality. There is an average difference of about 12 degrees between the temperature of Kylása and that of Vizagapatam, 8 miles distant; and owing to its proximity to the sea (within 3 miles), and the absence of forest growth, the site is singularly free from fever. It is easy of access, and the climate is said to be bracing and invigorating. But whether from the difficulty of a water-supply, or want of capital, the project of converting Kylása into a sanitarium has been abandoned.

Kynchiong.—River in the Khási Hills, Assam.—*See* KANCHIANG.

Kyouk-hpyu.—District and town, Arakan Division, British Burma. *See* KYAUK-PYU. A large number of towns and other places in British Burma, commencing with the syllable *Kyouk* in the first edition of *The Imperial Gazetteer*, appear in this edition under *Kyauk*, according to a revised system of transliteration prescribed for British Burma.

Kyún-pyaw.—Head-quarters of the Kyún-pyaw township in Bassein District, Irawadi Division, British Burma. Lat. 17° 17′ N., long. 95° 15′ E. Large export of rice to Bassein. Contains a court-house, police station, and market. Population (1881) 2835.

Kyún-ton.—One of the main branches of the Irawadi (Irrawaddy) river in British Burma, from which it bifurcates at a place about 10 miles below Gnyaung-don, following a south-westerly course to the sea. During the rains a rapid current sets downwards; but at other times this channel is tidal throughout its whole length, the rise and fall at its mouth being, at springs, about 7 feet. The Kyún-ton is navigable by river steamers from its northern entrance for about 60 miles. The islands in this river are numerous, the two principal ones being Meim-ma-hla (16 miles long by 3 broad) and Kywún-gnyo-gyí. In its upper reaches the Kyún-ton is known as the In-te, and lower down as the Maran or Kyaik-pí; by Europeans generally it is called the Dala. River traffic in rice, sugar, areca-nut, *nga-pí*, *daní*-leaves, and poles, etc.

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Labdarya. — *Táluk* in Larkana Sub-division, Shikárpur District, Sind, Bombay Presidency. Situated between 27° 15′ and 27° 31′ N. lat., and between 68° 2′ and 68° 23′ E. long. Area, 207 square miles.

Population (1881) 33,088, namely, 17,726 males and 15,362 females, dwelling in 4495 houses. Hindus numbered (1881) 1472; Muhammadans, 28,593; and Sikhs, 3023. Number of *tapás*, 4; number of villages, 43. Revenue in 1881–82, £13,992, of which £13,219 was derived from imperial sources, and £773 from local funds. In 1873–74 the revenue was £9214, of which £8450 was derived from imperial sources, and £764 from local funds. The *táluk* contained in 1884, 2 criminal courts and 4 police stations or *thánás;* regular police, 27 men. The area assessed to land revenue in 1882–83 was 40,656 acres; area under actual cultivation, 39,371 acres.

La-bwut-ku-la.—Village in Bassein District, Irawadi Division, British Burma. Population (1881) 1004; number of houses, 233. In 1877 the population was 1800.

Laccadive Islands (*Laksha Dwipa*—'The Hundred Thousand Islands'; also called the *Díví* or *Amíndívi* Islands).—A group of 14 islands off the west or Malabar coast of the Madras Presidency, lying between 10° and 14° N. lat., and between 71° 40′ and 74° E. long. Average distance from the mainland, 200 miles. There are 9 inhabited islands, 2 uninhabited, and 3 open reefs. Total population in 1871, 13,495; number of houses, 2442; total population in 1881, 14,473; number of houses, 2470. The northern portion of the group is attached to the Collectorate of South Kánara, the remainder belong to Alí Rájá of Cannanore, and form part of the administrative District of Malabar.

The following are the names of the islands:—

	Population (1881).	Houses.
South Kánara or Amíndívi Islands—		
Amíni or Amíndívi,	2060	322
Chetlat,	577	150
Kadam,	245	40
Kiltan,	790	198
Bitra—uninhabited.	—	—
Cannanore Islands—		
Agatti,	1375	302
Kavaratti,	2129	314
Androth,	2884	407
Kalpeni (*Kaluftee of Ibn Batuta*),	1222	213
Minikoi (Mínkat),	3191	524
Suheli—uninhabited.	—	—
Total,	14,473	2470

The island of Minikoi more properly belongs to the Maldive group, and its inhabitants speak a different language from that (Malayálam) in use on the Laccadives proper.

Physical Aspects.—Each of the islands is situated on an extensive

coral-shoal, with an area of from 2 to 3 square miles. Their surface is flat, and no part of any of these formations rises more than 10 or 15 feet above the level of the sea. Around each island a more or less extensive fringe of coral reef extends, broader and more shelving on the west, where the island naturally most requires protection, and narrow and abrupt on the east. The outer edges are higher than the body of these shoals; and extending, as they do, in a semicircle at a distance of 500 yards to ¾ of a mile round the west, generally enclose a regularly formed lagoon, in which the water is so still that in the worst weather *coir*, or cocoa-nut fibre, may be soaked without danger of being washed away. The body of the island is the more perfect development of the eastern and protected side of the coral formation. The same feature characterizes all these shoals, and leads to the theory that they rose to the surface in the form of circular or oval shallow basins, and that under the protection of the shoal the east rim gradually developed itself towards the centre and formed an island. This theory is strengthened by the fact, that on some of the islands this gradual increase towards the lagoon is still going on. The receding tide leaves the outer edge of the reef nearly dry, and the tide water passes out of the lagoon by two or three breaches in the outer rim, which are sufficiently large to admit the light native craft into the natural harbour, several feet deep even at low tide, formed by the lagoon.

Under the surface of all these islands lies a stratum of coral or limestone which, varying from 1 foot to 1½ foot in thickness, is seemingly above the highest level of the water. This coral stratum stretches throughout the shoal. Beneath it is loose wet sand; and by breaking the crust and removing a few spadesful of sand, to allow the water to accumulate, a pool of fresh water may be obtained in most parts. All wells, tanks, and pits for soaking cocoa-nut fibre or *coir* (where soaked in fresh water) are thus made. The sand gradually presses towards this excavation, and from its constant removal some of the wells and tanks extend under the vault of coral for some distance all round. The water in these wells is quite fresh, and always abundant; but it is affected by the tide, rises and falls several inches, and is said to be not very wholesome.

Above the limestone or coral crust the soil lies to a depth varying from 2 to 6 feet, generally composed of light coral sand, which is finer than common sea sand, but quite as dry. In some parts the soil is entirely made up of small loose pieces of coral without any other soil, a condition which is said to be particularly well adapted to the cocoa-nut. The surface soil, except in two of the islands (Androth and Kalpeni), is naturally so barren that there is little or no spontaneous vegetation in most of the islands; and although during the monsoon some small crops of coarse dry grains are produced, their scantiness

shows that the prosperity of the islands must ever depend upon the cocoa-nut. 'Being so low,' writes Commander Taylor in his *Sailing Directions*, 'with cocoa-nut trees only 50 or 60 feet above the sea, these islands are not discernible at any distance, and therefore are commonly and prudently avoided by navigators; but amongst them there are safe and wide channels through which a ship may extricate herself if, by any error in reckoning or otherwise, she gets among them.'

There are but few animals of any kind. Rats are unfortunately numerous, and prove very destructive to the cocoa-nut plantations. Tortoises are common, and fish is abundant.

History, Administration, etc. — For two and a half centuries, the Laccadive Islands formed part of the small principality of Cannanore, having been conferred as *jágír* on that family by the Chirakkál or Kolattiri Rájá (about A.D. 1550). The island of Minikoi was a more recent acquisition from the Sultán of the Maldives. In 1786 the northern islanders revolted, and transferred their allegiance to Mysore. In 1799, when Kánara fell to the East India Company, these islands were not restored to the Bíbí of Cannanore, but a remission of revenue (£525) was conceded instead; hence the different status of the two portions of the group. From 1855 to 1860, the southern islands were sequestrated for arrears of revenue. This again happened in 1877, and they are at present directly administered by the Collector of Malabar, to the unqualified satisfaction of the inhabitants. Such revenue as is derived from the Laccadive Islands has for more than a century been obtained by a monopoly of the staple produce of the group—*coir*. The entire out-turn of the fibre is claimed by the Government as respects the northern portion of the group, and by Alí Rájá of Cannanore as respects the islands which still remain under native management. The article is paid for to the producers at fixed prices, and is sold on the coast at the market rates; the difference constitutes the revenue or profits of trade of the Government and Alí Rájá respectively. The latter pays a fixed tribute or *peshkash* of Rs. 10,000 (£1000) to the Government on account of the islands which he manages. No change has been made for many years in the price which is given by Government for the *coir* produced in the islands attached to Kánara. Payment is made partly in rice and partly in money; and as the price is fairly equitable as compared with the average rates which could be obtained on the coast by the producers, the arrangement is still popular with the northern islanders.

On the southern islands, on the contrary, the price has been constantly changed by the native chief, and so reduced as to produce discontent and evasion of the monopoly; other monopolies (cocoa-nut, cowries, tortoise-shell, and the like) and imposts have been exacted or maintained, and entire alienation between Alí Rájá and the inhabitants

has existed for years. In Minikoi, which is geographically the most isolated of the group, a more profitable arrangement for the inhabitants exists, and few, if any, monopolies are enforced. Comparative contentment and loyalty consequently exist here. Numerous wrecks of large vessels have occurred on the reefs, and on more than one occasion the inhabitants have been hard pressed for food owing to stress of weather.

The Kánara Islands are managed by a Sub-Magistrate and *munsif;* and the Cannanore group by *amíns* (revenue agents). The islands are from time to time visited by a European officer. The people are of a peaceable disposition, with no little aptitude for self-government, and their disputes are generally settled by their own head-men according to local custom.

Population.—The entire population numbers (1881) 14,473, of whom about one-third are in the Government islands (Kánara group). The people are all Musalmáns, and, like the Máppillás of the neighbouring coast, of Hindu descent. 'A tradition is preserved among them, that their forefathers formed a part of an expedition from Malayála which set out for Mecca in search of their apostate king Cheramán Perumál (*see* MALABAR DISTRICT), and was wrecked on these islands. The inhabitants certainly remained Hindus long after their first settlement, and were probably converted to Islám not more than 250 or 300 years ago. They retain some of the general distinctions of caste, as well as the law of succession in the female line, with certain local modifications. This law is still strictly adhered to on the island of Amíndívi, where distinctions of caste and a more numerous population have been obstacles to the gradual change, by which the custom of regular paternal descent is supplanting the local law of Malabar, on the islands of Kadam, Kiltan, and Chetlat of the Kánara portion of the group; in the southern islands, still under native management, the old custom is more rigidly observed.'—(Robinson.)

The proportion of females in the population is unusually large. There are, for the whole group, 111·79 females to every 100 males; and in some islands this disproportion is still more marked; thus in Minikoi the excess rises as high as nearly 26 per cent. The boys of Minikoi follow their fathers to sea at an early age, and when the ships are absent the proportion of males left on the island is extremely small. The general disparity is due partly to the emigration of the male population to the mainland for employment, and partly to accidental causes.

Customs, Language, etc.—Monogamy is universal, and the women appear in public freely, with their heads uncovered; in Minikoi, they take the lead in almost every business except navigation. The language of the Laccadive group is Malayálam, which is, however, written in the Arabic character; that of Minikoi is Maldive, with a mixture of corrupt

Malayálam. The head-men and pilots of most of the islands know a little Arabic; and the male inhabitants can generally both read and write. The number in 1881 who could read and write was returned by the Census at 2377, while the number under instruction was returned at 246. The inhabitants are bold seamen and expert boat-builders. They own 184 large and 719 small boats, navigating them by European instruments, with the use of which they are familiar. The chief cultivation is that of the cocoa-nut palm; and the almost sole industry is the preparation and exportation of cocoa-nut fibre (*coir*). The number of cultivators returned in 1881 was 1861, a majority of whom dwelt in the Amíndívi group. The soaking of *coir* and the other processes connected therewith are almost entirely conducted by the women, who in 1881 were employed thus to the number of 4638. The men convey the produce, *coir*, cocoa-nuts, jaggery, copra, *vindia* (a sweetmeat), besides tortoise-shell and cowries, to the mainland—from the northern islands to Mangalore; from the southern islands to the Malabar ports and Ceylon, the Maldives, and Calcutta. The annual value of the total exports is about £17,000.

Medical Aspects.—The climate is healthy on the whole, but the last European officer who visited Minikoi (1881) suffered with his establishment from malarious fever. Cholera has once visited Kalpeni, and formerly small-pox was the most dreaded disease of the islands. The practice, however, of both vaccination and inoculation has greatly reduced the mortality from this cause. Leprosy prevails; but the islanders have traditional sanitary laws, such as separate burial-grounds for small-pox and cholera deaths, and are otherwise careful in their habits. Cyclones, travelling up the Malabar coast, for a time submerge some of these islands; notably the storm of April 1847, which destroyed above 1000 people. More than one-sixth of the adult male population of Minikoi perished in a cyclone in 1867.

Lachhmangarh.—Town in the Shaikhawáti District, Jaipur State, Rájputána. Population (1881) 8713. Hindus numbered 7262; Muhammadans, 1380; and 'others,' 71. Belongs to the Síkar chiefship (a feudatory of Jaipur), and named after Ráo Rájá Lachhman Singh, a former Síkar chief, by whom the place was founded in 1806. The town is fortified, and is built after the model of the city of Jaipur. It contains many handsome edifices, occupied principally by the banking class. Post-office.

Lachmangarh. — Town in the Native State of Alwar (Ulwar), Rájputána. Population (1872) 3779; number of houses, 996; not returned in the Census of 1881. Twenty-three miles south-east of Alwar city. The original name was Taur, but the fort was re-named by Partab Singh. Najaf Khán besieged the place.

Ladákh.—In its restricted but more correct sense, the name of

Ladákh is applicable only to one of the three outlying Governorships under the Mahárájá of Kashmír (Cashmere),—the other two being Báltistán and Gilgit. It is of extremely irregular outline; but, speaking broadly, it may be described as comprising the valley of the Indus, and also of most of its tributaries, from 32° to 35° N. lat., and from 75° 29′ to 79° 29′ E. long. The different Districts of Central Ladákh, Rúpshu, and Neobra, besides the bleak and almost uninhabited plateaux of the Kuen-lun and Linzhithang plains, together make up the Province. The area of Ladákh is estimated by General Cunningham at about 30,000 square miles; but this includes Zanskar, and some other Districts which do not belong to it in a political sense. Mr. F. Drew is the most recent authority on Ladákh; his return of the population, as ascertained by the Census of 1873, is 20,621; the 168,000 given by Cunningham, the 165,000 of Moorcroft (1822), and the estimate of 200,000 furnished by Dr. Bellew in 1873, of course apply to the more extended area.

Lying as it does at the back of the great central range of the Himálayas, it may be readily understood that Ladákh is one of the loftiest of the inhabited regions of the globe. The valleys and plateaux vary between 9000 and 17,000 feet, while many of the peaks attain altitudes of 25,000 feet. The chief rivers of Ladákh are the Indus, and its tributaries the Sháyak, Neobra, Chanchengmo, and Zanskar. There are several salt lakes, the more important of which are the Pang Kong and Cho-moriri.

The climate is characterized by remarkable extremes, burning heat during the day being succeeded by piercing cold at night, while vegetation is parched by the excessive dryness of the air. The general aspect of the country is that of a somewhat complicated series of gigantic mountains, many of which rise to the limit of perpetual snow, interspersed with occasional valleys and deep ravines, where a few acres of ground available for cultivation are usually to be found. These support a few cereals, fruit-trees, poplars, and willows. The slopes of the mountains and the lofty table-lands in the north-east of the Province are, with the exception of occasional forest growth, almost destitute of vegetation. The wild animals comprise the *kiang* or wild ass, sheep, goat, marmot, and hare; snow-pheasant, red-legged partridge, eagle, and water-fowl; while the principal domestic animals are ponies, asses, oxen, sheep, goats, and dogs. The sheep are most useful, as nearly the whole of the traffic of the country is transported on their backs. General Cunningham relates that in one day he saw as many as from five to six thousand sheep laden with shawl and common wool, borax, sulphur, and dried apricots, all making their way to the hill Provinces on the south-west. The common domestic goat of Ladákh is the well-known shawl goat, the wool of which is exported to Kashmír, Nepál, and British India. In 1853, General Cunningham estimated the amount of wool produced in Ladákh at about 2400 *maunds*.

The trade of the country in home produce is confined to four articles, viz. wool, borax, sulphur, and dried fruits. The total value of this trade was estimated by Cunningham at £8000. But the fact of Leh being an important entrepôt for trade between Kashmír and Hindustán on the south, and Yarkand, Khotan, and Tibet on the north and east, has probably contributed more to the wealth of the country. The chief imports from Chinese territories are wool (sheep and goats), tea, gold dust and coins, silver, silk, and *charas* (an intoxicating preparation of hemp); while those from India consist of cotton goods, hides, skins and leathers, grain, guns, pistols, etc., brocades, and tea. In 1877, the foreign imports and exports into Leh were valued at £112,817 and £89,618 respectively, while the local imports and exports amounted together to £3573. The trade in wool with the Punjab in 1882–83 was valued at £83,509. The intermediate position of Rúpshu has induced many travelling merchants to come that way, the two chief routes from thence into British India being over the Bará Lacha and Parang Passes to Láhul and Simla respectively. The Lhasa tea merchants pass through Rúpshu on their way to Leh, with their ventures of brick-tea.

The Ladákhis are a short, strong, but ugly race of Turanian origin, and Buddhists in religion. They are a settled and cultivating people, living in villages, which vary from 9500 to 13,500 feet above the sea. They are cheerful, willing, and not quarrelsome, unless excited by their intoxicating drink, *chang;* simplicity and clumsiness are in a measure their chief characteristics. On the other hand, authorities agree in remarking that the Ladákhis far excel the Indian *munshis*, or learned men, in one point, *i.e.* the understanding of a map. The man's dress is a wide and long woollen coat (*choga*), confined at the waist by a woollen *kamarband* or scarf, thick boots, and felt gaiters. The women wear a gown, the skirt gathered into plaits, a sort of sheepskin shawl over the shoulders, and for head-dress a strip of cloth ornamented with shells or rough turquoises. The shoes are the same for both sexes, and the dress of neither varies with the season of the year. Almost all the Ladákhis are engaged in agriculture, and the area cultivated by one family is from 2 to 4 acres. The grain which is most prolific, and which is sown to the greatest extent, is a loose-grained and hardy barley; besides this, wheat, peas, and common barley grow at lesser altitudes. The food is generally barley-meal made into a porridge, or else into a sort of dough with butter-milk; *chang* (a light beer) and tea among the better-to-do classes are the usual drinks. They are very dirty in person, but extremely hardy, and carry great weights with facility and endurance. The women have much social liberty, and do a large share of the manual labour. Except among the few richer people, polyandry, or plurality of husbands, is quite general; the

practice having no doubt arisen from the limited extent of cultivable land, and the general inelasticity of the country's resources.

In nearly every village there is a monastery, which sometimes holds but one or two Lámas or monks, sometimes hundreds. These monasteries are, as a rule, conspicuously built on a spur of the mountain or isolated rock, and always somewhat apart from the village itself. The supply of priests is kept up by one boy in each family being usually devoted to the profession. The religious tone of the inhabitants is further exemplified by colossal figures of deities carved in the rock, stone-heaps or walls covered with inscriptions, and miscellaneous sacred structures.

The earliest mention of Ladákh is probably to be found in the description of *Kie-chha* by the Chinese pilgrim Fa-Hian (300 A.D.). It appears to be referred to again in the *Akhassa Regio* of Pliny, and in the *Mo-lo-pho* or *San-pho-lo* of Hiuen Tsiang (middle of the 7th century). Originally it formed one of the Provinces of Tibet, governed as to temporal matters by an independent prince, and in spiritual affairs by the Grand Láma of Lhasa. In the 10th century, when the empire of Great Tibet was finally broken up, several of the outlying Districts were erected into independent kingdoms, and Palgyi-Gon occupied Ladákh. At the beginning of the 17th century, all the records of the temples and monasteries were destroyed by Alí Sher, chief of Skardo, which has occasioned a deplorable gap in the history of the country. The dominion of Ladákh was much enlarged by Siunge Namgyal, who defeated the chief of Balti, although aided by Jahángír Sháh. A series of wars between the Sokpos and Ladákhis ensued, but eventually in 1688 the Sokpos were driven out of Ladákh with the assistance of the Muhammadans from Kashmír, and received Rudokh as a concession. The Rájá of Ladákh then became a Muhammadan, and from that time Ladákh appears to have paid tribute to Kashmír.

About the time of Moorcroft's visit to Ladákh, in 1822, the Gyalpo, or ruler, made an offer of his allegiance to the British Government, which, unfortunately for the prosperity of Ladákh, was refused. In 1834, Ladákh was invaded by the Dogra troops of Ghuláb Singh, ruler of Kashmír, under the leadership of Zorávar Singh, and, with the neighbouring Province of Balti, was conquered after two campaigns. Elated at these successes, the same commander invaded Rudokh; but here the combined power of the Chinese and the piercing cold led to the practical annihilation of his army, in the very same month of the same year that a British division of about equal strength was destroyed in Afghánistán. By a treaty of the 16th March 1846, Kashmír and its dependencies were handed over to Ghuláb Singh by the British Government, to whom they had passed on the conquest of the Punjab.

In 1867, Dr. Cayley was specially deputed to Ladákh, to report on

the trade; and in 1870, a treaty was concluded between Lord Mayo and the Mahárájá of Kashmír, providing for the appointment of two Joint Commissioners, one British and one native, for supervising the through trade; since which date annual reports on the subject have been duly submitted. Very full information will also be found in Dr. Aitchison's *Trade Products of Leh* (1874).

Ladole (or *Látol*).—Town in Vijápur Sub-division, Baroda State (Gáekwár's territory). Population (1881) 5761.

Ládwa.—Town and municipality in Pipli *tahsíl*, Ambálá (Umballa) District, Punjab; situated on the unmetalled road from Pipli to Radaur, 33 miles south-east of Ambálá town, in lat. 29° 59′ 30″ N., and long. 77° 5′ E. The town was formerly the capital of a small native State, which was confiscated in 1846, owing to the conduct of its ruler, Rájá Ajít Singh, during the first Sikh campaign. The fort, the former residence of the Rájá, still exists, and is a substantial old building. Population (1868) 4400; (1881) 4061, namely, Hindus, 3100; Muhammadans, 916; Sikhs, 44; and Jain, 1. Number of houses, 690. Municipal income in 1881–82, £398, or 1s. 8¼d. per head of the population. Police station and primary school.

Lahár.—Fortified town in Gwalior State, Central India; situated in lat. 26° 11′ 50″ N., and long. 78° 59′ 5″ E., 6 miles east of the right or east bank of the river Sind; 50 miles east of Gwalior fort, and 85 south-east of Agra. Lahár is chiefly noteworthy as the scene of a memorable and desperate assault by a British force in 1780. 'Captain Popham, in command of 2400 infantry, a small body of cavalry, and a detail of European artillery, with a howitzer and a few field-pieces, besieged this fort, which was found to be much stronger than had been fallaciously represented by the Ráná of Gohad, who was anxious to have it captured from the Maráthás. It was imperfectly breached; and as the light field-pieces could produce no further effect on the defences, the British commander determined to make a desperate attempt at storming. By extraordinary efforts, a lodgment was made in the place. Dreadful slaughter ensued on both sides. The enemy defended themselves with desperation; and it was not until the garrison, which had consisted of 500 men, was reduced to their *kiladár* and a few of his dependants, that quarter was demanded. The British lost 125 men.'

Lahárpur.—*Parganá* in Sítápur *tahsíl*, Sítápur District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Kheri District; on the east and south by *parganás* Biswán and Tambaur; and on the west by *parganás* Hargám and Khairábád. Principal mart, Kesriganj, 2 miles west of Lahárpur town. The *parganá* is divided into two portions by a ridge of land from 10 to 30 feet in height, the lands to the north of which are known as *tarái*, the soil being a stiff *matiár;* while to the south the soil is a

fine *domát*. Population (1869) 84,730; (1881) 88,418, namely, males 45,988, and females 42,430. Area (at time of Settlement in 1872), 192 square miles, or 122,880 acres, of which 81,825 acres were cultivated, 22,415 acres cultivable, 1460 acres revenue-free (*muáfi*), and 16,996 uncultivable waste. Incidence of land-tax, 1s. 10¾d. per acre of total area; 2s. 2¾d. per acre of assessed area, or 2s. 10⅛d. per acre of cultivated area. The *parganá* was formed by Rájá Todar Mall in the reign of Akbar, out of the lands of 13 *tappás*, containing 765 villages. It contained at the time of the Settlement 176 villages, held under the following tenures:—*Tálukdárí*, 104, and *zamíndárí*, 72. The principal castes among the landed proprietors are Gaur and Janwár Rájputs, the former holding 105 villages and the latter 13. The Gaurs are descendants of Rájá Chandra Sen, who invaded Sítápur during the anarchy which ensued on the death of the Emperor Aurangzeb in 1707. The Janwárs are known as Saindurias, from their original village of Saindur in *parganá* Kursi, whence they came into Lahárpur before the invasion of the Gaurs. In addition to the 13 villages which they hold direct from the State, they also possess several villages in sub-settlement.

Lahárpur.—Town in Lahárpur *parganá*, Sítápur District, Oudh; situated 17 miles north of Sítápur town, on a road leading to Mallapur on the Gogra. Lat. 27° 42′ 45″ N., long. 80° 56′ 25″ E. A town of considerable extent, having a population in 1869 of 10,890, divided almost equally between Hindus and Muhammadans. Population (1881) 10,437, namely, Muhammadans, 5595; Hindus, 4827; and Jains, 15. Area of town site, 418 acres. Lahárpur contains 1590 mud huts and 104 masonry buildings, the number of the latter steadily increasing, the banker caste being the principal builders. The public buildings consist of the usual police, post, and registry offices, with a well-attended school, and a *sarái*. Thirteen mosques, 4 Musalmán tombs, 4 Hindu and 2 Sikh temples. Good daily *bázárs*, the sales at which amount to about £4000 per annum. No manufactures. The town is surrounded by extensive groves, and numerous fine trees are interspersed among the houses. Excellent and shady camping ground. Large fair held in the month of Rabi-us-sani; and the *Muharram* festival is celebrated with great splendour. The town was originally founded by, and named after, the Emperor Firoz Tughlak in 1370 A.D., when on his way to the shrine of Sayyid Sálár Masáúd at Bahráich. Thirty years afterwards, one Lahuri, a Pásí, took possession of it, and changed its name to Lahárpur. The Pásís were exterminated in 1418 by a Muhammadan army from Kanauj, under Shaikh Táhír Ghází. Subsequently the Muhammadans were ousted in 1707 by the Gaur Rájputs, who still possess most of the land in the *parganá*. Lahárpur is famous as the birthplace of Rájá Todar Mall, Akbar's great finance minister and general.

Láhaul.—Valley in Kángra District, Punjab.—*See* LAHUL.

Lahore.—A Division (under a Commissioner) in the Punjab, lying between 30° 8′ and 32° 33′ N. lat., and between 73° 11′ 30″ and 75° 27′ E. long., and comprising the three Districts of LAHORE, FIROZPUR, and GUJRANWALA, each of which see separately. It is bounded on the north by Sháhpur and Gujrát Districts; on the east by Siálkot and Amritsar Districts, by Kapúrthala State, and by Jalandhar District; on the south by Patiála State; and on the west by Sirsa, Montgomery, and Jhang Districts. Area (1881), 8987 square miles, containing 26 towns and 3845 villages, with 323,296 occupied houses. Population (1868) 1,888,945; (1881) 2,191,517, namely, males 1,201,277, and females 990,240. Total increase for the thirteen years 1868–1881, 302,572, or 16·0 per cent. Number of families, 453,547. Average density of population, 244 persons per square mile. Classified according to religion, there were, in 1881—Muhammadans, 1,362,669, or 62·1 per cent. of the total population; Hindus, 489,286, or 22·3 per cent.; Sikhs, 330,566, or 15·1 per cent.; Jains, 2358; Pársís, 101; Christians, 6524; and 'others,' 13. The prevailing castes or tribes are the Játs, 518,225, and Chuhrás, 225,841. The former of these tribes are now almost entirely Muhammadans by conversion, and the latter is about equally divided between Muhammadans and Hindus. Indeed, in almost every caste or tribe mentioned below, there is a greater or less Muhammadan element. The principal of these tribes or castes are the following:—Rájputs, 130,599; Arains, 167,747; Juláhas, 82,406; Tarkháns, 79,305; Aroras, 76,521; Kumbhárs, 73,709; Khattrís, 63,445; Muchís, 59,173; Machhís, 55,773. The Muhammadan population by race, as distinguished from the descendants of converts, includes—Shaikhs, 33,216; Khojahs, 18,257; Sayyids, 17,403; Kashmírís, 19,482; Balúchís, 9813; Patháns, 11,010; and Mughals, 5606.

Lahore Division contains a large urban population, numbering 342,587, or 15·6 per cent. Deducting Lahore city, however, the urban population numbers 193,218, or 8·8 per cent. Of the 3845 villages comprising the Division, 2713 contain less than five hundred inhabitants, and 689 from five hundred to a thousand. The average area under crops for the four years ending 1881, was 4365 square miles. Average annual land revenue, 1877 to 1881, £168,155; average annual gross revenue, including land, tribute, local rates, excise, and stamps, £247,892. For further details see the articles on the separate Districts of Lahore, Firozpur, and Gujránwála, which comprise the Division.

Lahore.—District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of the Punjab, lying between 30° 37′ and 31° 54′ N. lat., and between 73° 40′ 15″ and 75° 1′ E. long. Area (1881), 3648 square miles. Population, 924,106.

Lahore forms the central District of the Lahore Division. It is bounded on the north-west by Gujránwála; on the north-east by Amritsar; on the south-east by the river Sutlej (Satlaj), which separates it from Firozpur District; and on the south-west by Montgomery District. It is divided into four *tahsíls*, of which Sharakpur comprises the trans-Rávi portion of the District; and Chunián the south-western half of the tract between the Rávi and the Sutlej. The north-eastern half is divided between Lahore *tahsíl*, which lies along the Rávi; and Kasúr *tahsíl*, along the Sutlej. Lahore stands eleventh in order of area, and third in order of population, among the thirty-two Districts of the Province, comprising 3·42 per cent. of the total area, 4·91 per cent. of the total population, and 3·88 per cent. of the urban population of British territory. The administrative head-quarters are at LAHORE CITY, the capital of the Punjab.

Physical Aspects.—Lahore District comprises an irregular square of territory, stretching from the Sutlej (Satlaj) to the Rávi, and extending beyond the latter river far into the heart of the Rechná Doáb. Its surface, though mainly level, like the remainder of the Punjab plain, consists of parallel belts, having various degrees of fertility, which follow the general direction of the rivers Sutlej, Rávi, and Degh. The valleys of these three principal streams, with their intervening dorsal ridges, demarcate the country into several well-recognised tracts.

Between the Sutlej and the Rávi stretches an upland region, known as the Mánjha, the original home of the Sikhs, broad and fairly cultivated towards the north, but contracting towards the south, and becoming more and more desert, till it becomes at last, in parts not reached by canal water, a mere barren steppe, interspersed with low bushes, affording forage to camels, and in favourable seasons covered with long grass much prized as pasturage for cattle. Villages only occur at rare intervals; but ruins of tanks, wells, towns, and forts prove that this desolate upland once formed the seat of a flourishing people. A high bank, running due east and west from the Sutlej, bounds the Mánjha to the south; and between this bank and the river lies a fertile triangular wedge of lowland, known as the Hítár. The Rávi has only a small fringe of fruitful alluvium, from two to three miles in breadth, beyond which a tract of jungle runs north-westward to the Degh.

Except along the banks of rivers and in the canal tract described below, Lahore District is sadly wanting in fertility, owing to scarcity of water. Wherever wells can be sunk, or where water has been obtained from canals or other artificial sources, the out-turn of crops is in no way inferior to that of the neighbouring Districts, though not equal to that of the more highly favoured Districts of Siálkot, Hoshiárpur, or Jálandhar.

The Rávi traverses the District throughout its whole length, passing

within a mile of Lahore city, and dividing in places into numerous branches, which reunite after short courses. The Beas (Biás) and the Sutlej, which now meet just above the boundary of the District, once flowed in separate channels till they fell into the Indus; and the old bed of the Beas may still be distinctly traced close to the high bank of the Mánjha. According to the villagers, the change took place about the year 1750, in consequence of the curse of a Sikh Gurú, whose hermitage the irreverent river had destroyed. The towns of Kasúr and Chunián, besides many large villages, stand upon the edge of the ancient bank. Several important irrigation works fertilize the land throughout the District.

The BARI DOAB CANAL runs down the high backbone between the Sutlej and the Rávi. The main line enters the District near Badhána, and runs south-westwards to Wán Khára in the Chunián *tahsíl*, whence a permanent escape has been dug to the Rávi at Alpa. The Lahore or northern branch of the same canal enters the District at Wahgeh, passes between Lahore city and the cantonment of Mián Mír, and joins the Rávi at Niáz Beg, a large village eight miles south-west of Lahore. The Kasúr branch, south of the main line, enters the District at Mughal, and terminates at Algun Hardo near the line of the Punjab Northern State Railway. The Sobráon branch waters a small portion of the south-eastern corner of the District, and has its escape into the Sutlej. The Hasli Canal, constructed by Alí Mardan Khán, the famous engineer of Sháh Jahán, which formerly provided water for the gardens and fountains at Shalimár, near Lahore, now also feeds the Bári Doáb Canal; while three inundation cuts from the Sutlej, known as the Katora, Khánwah, and Soház, spread fertility over the triangular belt between the Mánjha bank and the river.

The only trees indigenous to the District appear to be the *kíkar* (Acacia arabica), *siris* (Albizzia Lebbek), *tut* or mulberry (Morus indica), and in a few places in alluvial soil, the palm tree. The *jand* (Indigofera atro purpurea), *wana* (Vitex Negundo), *phuláhi* (Acacia modesta), *karíl* (Capparis aphylla), a camel thorn, are more properly shrubs, though the first three sometimes attain the growth of trees. *Shisham* or *sissu* (Dalbergia Sissoo), *amb* or mango (Mangifera indica), *bakain* (Melia Azedarach), *amaltás* (Cassia fistula), *barna*, *pipal* (Ficus religiosa), *bor* (Ficus bengalensis), all require planting and tending for the first three or four years. Government has reserved several large tracts of waste land as fuel plantations for the railway, or grazing places for the horses employed by the military authorities, the total area under the Forest Department being 227,824 acres.

Wolves are still to be found in the wilder portions of the Mánjha and the trans-Rávi tract, but they are now nearly exterminated. The opening of the Bári Doáb Canal has made this tract fertile and

fairly populous, many new villages having been founded quite recently. Leopards and *nílgai* are occasionally met with, and antelope, ravine-deer, wild hog, hares, quails, sand-grouse, and pea-fowl are plentiful, especially in the forest plantations. Ducks, geese, cranes, wading birds, and pelicans abound along the banks of the Sutlej and its backwaters. The principal fishes found in the rivers are the *mahsír*, *katlá*, *mori*, *saul*, *sanghari*, *gawallí*, *khagga*, *bachwa*, and *banam*. Snakes and scorpions are common. The Sutlej and the Rávi swarm with the *gharial*, or long-nosed crocodile; the *maggar*, or snubnosed crocodile, is also found in the former river.

History.—Numerous ruins of cities and wells, scattered over the now almost uninhabitable portions of the District, show that at some early period the general level of water must have stood much higher than now, and so permitted the existence of a comparatively high civilisation. Few traces, however, can be recovered of this pre-historic age; and the annals of the District coincide in the main with those of the great city from which it takes its name. Situated on the high road from Afghánistán, Lahore has been visited by every western invader from the days of Alexander onward. It long formed the centre of a confederation which repelled the advancing tide of Islám; it next became the capital of the Ghazní dynasty, and at a later period, stood for a short time as the head-quarters of the Mughals; while in modern times it has seen the rise of Ranjít Singh, and finally settled down into the administrative centre of a British Province.

At the time of Alexander's invasion, Lahore was probably a place of little importance; but in the 7th century, Hiuen Tsiang, the Chinese Buddhist pilgrim, mentions it as a great Bráhmanical city, which he passed on his way to Jálandhar (Jullundur). At the period of the first Muhammadan invasion, towards the end of the same century, Lahore was ruled by a Chauhán prince of the Ajmere (Ajmír) family. For three hundred years longer, the native Rájás held their own against all Musalmán attacks; but towards the end of the 10th century, Subuktugín, Sultán of Ghazní, 'like a foaming torrent, hastened toward Hindustán,' and defeated Jai Pál of Lahore, who burnt himself to death in despair. Shortly after, the more famous Mahmúd of Ghazní invaded India, defeated Anang Pál, son of Jai Pál, at Peshávar, and after pushing his conquests farther into Hindustán, returned thirteen years later to occupy Lahore, which remained thenceforth in the hands of one or other Muhammadan dynasty until the Sikh reaction.

During the reigns of the first eight Ghazní princes, Lahore was governed by viceroys; but about the year 1102, the Seljaks drove the Ghazní Sultán to India, and Lahore then became the capital of their race. It remained the capital of the Musalmán Empire till Muhammad Ghori transferred the metropolis to Delhi in 1193. Under the Khiljí

and Tughlak dynasties, Lahore makes little figure in history. In 1397, when Timúr invaded India, it fell before one of his lieutenants;' but the fact that the Mughal conqueror did not himself sack it in person, shows that it must then have sunk into comparative insignificance. In 1436, Bahlol Lodi, afterwards Emperor, seized upon Lahore, as a first step to power. Under his grandson Sultán Ibráhím, Daulat Khán, the Afghán Governor of Lahore, revolted, and called in the aid of Bábar, who marched upon the city in 1524. Ibráhím's army met him near Lahore; but Bábar defeated them with ease, and gave over the city to be plundered.

In 1526, Bábar once more invaded India; and after the decisive battle of Pánípat, took possession of Delhi, and laid the foundation of the Mughal Empire. Under that magnificent dynasty, Lahore remained at all times more or less of a royal residence, and still retains many splendid memorials of its imperial inhabitants (*see* LAHORE CITY). Nádir Sháh passed through almost unresisted on his way to overturn the Mughal power in 1738; and the success of his invasion gave a fresh impetus to the rising enthusiasm of the Sikhs, whose tenets had been slowly spreading through the Punjab ever since the days of Nának. In 1748, Ahmad Sháh Duráni took Lahore; and a period of perpetual invasion, pillage, and depopulation set in, which lasted up to the establishment of Ranjít Singh's rule. During the thirty years which followed Ahmad Sháh's final departure in 1767, the Sikhs remained practically unmolested, and Lahore District fell into the hands of three among their chieftains, belonging to the Bhangi *misl* or confederacy. In 1799, Ranjít Singh took his first step toward the sovereignty of the Punjab by obtaining a grant of Lahore from the Afghán invader, Sháh Zamán. His subsequent rise to mastery over the whole Province, and the collapse of his artificial kingdom under his successors, form a chapter of imperial history (*see* PUNJAB). In December 1846, the Council of Regency was established, and the British Resident became the real central authority at Lahore. On 29th March 1849, on the conclusion of the second Sikh war, the young Mahárájá Dhulíp Singh resigned the government to the British, and the District has ever since been constituted upon the usual administrative model.

During the Mutiny of 1857, a plot among the native troops at Meeán Meer, for seizing the fort of Lahore, was fortunately discovered in time and frustrated by the disarming of the mutinous regiments under the guns of a battery of horse artillery, supported by a British infantry regiment. Throughout the rebellion, Lahore continued in a disturbed state. In July, the 26th Native Infantry regiment mutinied at Meeán Meer, and, after murdering some of their officers, succeeded in effecting their escape under cover of a dust storm. They were, however, overtaken on the banks of the Rávi, and destroyed by a force under the

command of Mr. Cooper, Deputy-Commissioner of Amritsar. The strictest precautions were adopted in and around Lahore City until the fall of Delhi removed all further cause of apprehension.

Population.—The Census of 1868 returned the population of Lahore District at 789,666, or 788,409 upon the area comprising the District as at present constituted. In 1881, the population was returned at 924,106, showing an increase of 135,697, or 17·2 per cent., in thirteen years. This increase is attributable to a large influx of traders, artisans, etc., and the formation of new villages resulting from the extension of canal irrigation and of the railway system through the District since 1868. The general results of the Census of 1881 may be briefly summarized as follows:—Area, 3648 square miles, with 9 towns and 1477 villages; number of houses, 194,834, of which 160,296 were occupied, and 34,538 unoccupied. Total population, 924,106, namely, males 510,353, and females 413,753; proportion of males, 55·2 per cent. Average density of population, 253 persons per square mile; number of towns or villages per square mile, 42; persons per town or village (excluding Lahore City), 521. Number of houses per square mile, 53; inmates per house, 5·8. Classified according to age, there were—under 15 years of age, males 191,041, and females 159,808; total children, 350,849, or 37·9 per cent. of the population; above 15 years, males 319,312, and females 253,945; total adults, 573,257, or 62·1 per cent. As regards religious distinctions, Muhammadans form the great majority of the population, numbering 599,477, or 64·8 per cent. Hindus numbered 193,319, or 20·9 per cent.; Sikhs, 125,591, or 13·6 per cent.; Christians, 4644; Jains, 970; Pársís, 92; and 'others,' 13.

Among the ethnical divisions, the Játs come first (157,670), and form the leading agricultural community. More than half of them (84,174) retain the ancestral creed of their Sikh or Hindu forefathers; the remainder have embraced Islám. The other principal castes and tribes are as follow. In almost all of them there is a greater or lesser Muhammadan element, descendants of converts from Hinduism—Chuhras, 99,025; Arains, 94,964; Rájputs, 54,577; Juláhas, 35,742; Aroras, 33,136; Khattrís, 32,970; Kumbhárs, 31,524; Tarkháns, 31,009; Machhís, 24,747; Telís, 23,066; Jhinwárs, 20,941; Bráhmans, 20,813; Mochís, 18,527; Kambohs, 17,694; Dhobís, 15,596; Náis, 13,840; Lohárs, 13,767; Mirásís, 11,747; Labánas, 10,116; Mahtams, 9551; Sonárs, 8317; Gujárs, 7079; and Dogras, 6733. The Muhammadan population by race, as distinguished from descendants of converts, consists of —Shaikhs, 17,853; Khojahs, 12,313; Kashmírís, 11,659; Sayyids, 7930; Patháns, 6976; Balúchís, 5247; and Mughals, 3676. According to sect, the Musalmáns are returned as follows:—Sunnís, 578,201; Shiás, 3032; Wahábis, 241; 'others' and unspecified, 18,003. The

Christian population includes 3252 Europeans or Americans, 632 Eurasians, and 760 natives. According to sect, the Christian population comprises—Church of England, 2535; Roman Catholics, 1001; Church of Scotland, 208; Baptists, 233; Wesleyans, 53; Protestant but otherwise unspecified, 417; Armenian Church, 20; 'others' and unspecified, 177.

Instruction, both religious and secular, is afforded by a number of schools attached to the American Baptist Mission, and by the Zanáná and girls' schools. A Divinity School is maintained by the Church Missionary Society for the training of Native Christians as clergymen and catechists; also a female Normal School for training girls as teachers, and a Zanáná Mission. A branch of the Methodist Episcopal Mission was established in Lahore in 1881; but it mainly confines its efforts to out-door preaching, and up to 1883 had no church or schools or community of native Christians attached to it. The Punjab Religious Book Society, in connection with the London Religious Tract Society, was established in 1863, and has its central depository in the Anárkalli *bázár*. A number of colporteurs are employed.

Town and Rural Population.—Lahore District contains eight towns with a population exceeding five thousand, namely, LAHORE CITY and suburbs, including the civil station and *sadr bázár*, 130,960; MEEAN MEER (Mián Mír) cantonment (included with Lahore City in the Census Report), 18,409; KASUR, 17,336; CHUNIAN, 8122; PATTI, 6407; KHEM KARN, 5516; RAJA JANG, 5187; and SUR SINGH, 5104. Two other towns are municipalities, with a population of less than five thousand, namely, SHARAKPUR, 4595, and KHUDIAN, 2917. Total urban population, 204,553, or 22·1 per cent. of the District population. Deducting Lahore City and Meean Meer cantonment, however, the urban population amounts to only 55,184, or 7·1 per cent., as against a rural population of 719,553, or 92·8 per cent. Of the 1486 towns and villages in the District, 465 are returned as having less than two hundred inhabitants; 559 from two to five hundred; 279 from five hundred to a thousand; 138 from one to two thousand; 25 from two to three thousand; 13 from three to five thousand; 5 from five to ten thousand; 1 from fifteen to twenty thousand; and 1 upwards of fifty thousand inhabitants.

The villages generally possess a common site, on which all the habitations of the residents are gathered together in a cluster of mud huts. A deep pond, out of the excavations of which the huts have been built, lies on one side of every village; the water out of the pond being used for the cattle to drink from, for the village clothes to be cleaned in, and sometimes even for drinking purposes. In addition to this, there is generally a tall *pípal* or other tree affording shelter for

village assemblies, or the accommodation of travellers; also a *takia* or *masjid* for religious observances. The houses and courtyards are generally huddled together, with narrow lanes between them; dirty and badly drained, and often the receptacles for all dirt and filth. The house, even of a prosperous agriculturist, looks but a poor abode, built of mud or clay, with a thatched roof in the neighbourhood of the villages, but in other places with flat mud roofs. The house generally consists of one or two small dark rooms, with no opening but the door; having a large courtyard in front, where the family live and follow their occupations all day long, while the head of the household is away in his fields.

The food of the cultivating classes consists of the commoner grains, such as gram, *moth*, Indian corn, *chína*, etc., ground and kneaded with water, and made into round flat cakes or *chapátís*. Before the opening of the Bári Doáb Canal, wheat was seldom eaten save as a luxury, or on occasions of festivity. Since the introduction of irrigation, the cultivation of this crop has increased so much that it will probably soon become the staple food of the people. Rice is too expensive to be much used by the poorer classes, for it has to be brought from a distance. Meat, particularly the flesh of the goat and kid, is eaten by those who can afford it. The people are very fond of curds, whey, and butter-milk, and for vegetables they use the leaves of the mustard plant. Salt is an indispensable accompaniment to every meal, and is also largely given to the cattle. Among the cultivating classes, the Rájput Musalmáns are, as a rule, deeply in debt; but the Játs are more independent of the village banker in Lahore than in many other Punjab Districts, and are more economical. They, however, resort to the bankers on every occasion of want. As regards the commercial and industrial classes, it may be said generally that a large proportion of the artisans in the towns are extremely poor; while those in the villages are scarcely less dependent on the harvest than are the agriculturists themselves, their fees often taking the form of a fixed share of the produce.

As regards occupation, the Census Report of 1881 returned the adult male population under the following seven classes:—(1) Professional class, including all Government officials, civil and military, and the learned professions, 21,113; (2) domestic and menial class, 36,508; (3) commercial class, including merchants, traders, carriers, etc., 10,716; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, including gardeners, 117,975; (5) industrial and manufacturing class, 79,153; (6) indefinite and non-productive class, including labourers, 37,973; (7) unspecified, 15,874.

Agriculture.—According to the Punjab Administration Report for 1883-84, out of a total District area of 2,364,887 acres, 1,156,385 acres were under cultivation, 159,545 acres were grazing land, 738,156

acres were cultivable, and 310,801 acres were uncultivable waste. Of the cultivated area, 548,688 acres were artificially irrigated, 239,808 acres from Government works, and 308,880 acres by private individuals from wells, etc. The great crop of the District is the *rábi* or spring harvest. The principal staples of this harvest, and their area in 1883-84, are as follow:—Wheat, 393,070 acres, now the great agricultural product of the District since the opening up of the formerly sterile tract of the Mánjha by the Bári Doáb Canal. The best variety is grown in the villages around Lahore city. Gram occupies 188,459 acres; barley, 34,597 acres; mustard seed, 13,729 acres; and vegetables, 10,626 acres. The *kharíf* or autumn harvest is mainly devoted to inferior grains and fodder for cattle. Rice occupies 15,609 acres, the best kinds being grown along the banks of the Degh, and in the *bángar* tract of Sharakpur *tahsíl*. *Joár* is the principal *kharíf* crop, and occupies 62,809 acres; Indian corn, 46,643 acres; *moth*, 34,793 acres. Of non-food crops, cotton is the most important, and is cultivated on 33,961 acres. It is grown in the lowlands of Chunián and Kasúr between the old bed of the Beas and the Sutlej. It is, however, of inferior quality, and is mainly employed for home consumption. The principal fruits cultivated in the District are—mangoes, peaches, oranges of superior quality, mulberries, plums, loquats, melons, guavas, pine-apples, *phalsa* (an acid berry), pomegranates, sweet limes, and plantains.

The average out-turn per acre for the different crops is thus returned in 1883-84:—Rice, 1033 lbs.; wheat, 749 lbs.; gram, 941 lbs.; barley, 726 lbs.; *bájra*, 378 lbs.; *joár*, 477 lbs.; inferior grains, 488 lbs.; cotton, 393 lbs.; tobacco, 689 lbs.; oil-seeds, 366 lbs.; and fibres, 264 lbs. The use of manure hardly extends beyond the lands immediately adjacent to the villages. Round the city of Lahore, however, it is employed with great effect, as many as three crops being sometimes taken from the same field within the year.

The village tenures fall under the three ordinary Punjab types, but that known as *pattidárí* prevails in a large majority of cases. The peasant proprietors in most instances cultivate their own lands. At the time of the Settlement of 1869, 76,147 proprietors owned 1,703,187 acres; and 57,715 tenants held 336,851 acres. The final results of the Settlement, as regards tenant-right, were as follows:—Tenants with rights of occupancy, 13,119 holdings; tenants holding conditionally, 3214 holdings; tenants-at-will, 34,700 holdings. Cash rents hardly exist, and rentals mainly depend, not upon free competition, but upon custom and the caste of the tenant. Cash rates are now becoming more common, being forced up by competition. The rates current at the Settlement of 1869 are thus described: 'Of 51,715 tenants, 27,798 cultivating 182,995 acres pay their rent in produce, and only 23,917

holding 153,856 acres pay in cash, or are free of rent. Of the land held by tenants paying their rent in kind, there are as many as 115,856 acres, which yield one-fourth produce to the landlords; 11,084 acres, paying half; 6745 acres, paying two-fifths; and 49,310, paying one-third.' On unirrigated land, half or one-third of the gross produce forms the average rate; on irrigated land, one-fourth may be regarded as a fair proportion.

Prices of food-grains ruled as follows in 1880 :— Wheat, 16 *sers* per rupee, or 7s. per cwt.; barley, 17 *sers* per rupee, or 6s. 4d. per cwt.; gram, 20 *sers* per rupee, or 5s. 7d. per cwt.; *bájrá*, 19 *sers* per rupee, or 6s. per cwt. These prices were exceptionally high. On the 1st January 1884, the ruling rates for food-grains were as follows:—Wheat, 25 *sers* per rupee, or 4s. 6d. per cwt.; barley, 40 *sers* per rupee, or 2s. 10d. per cwt.; gram, 38 *sers* per rupee, or 3s. per cwt.; *joár*, 38 *sers* per rupee, or 3s. per cwt.; and *bájra*, 26 *sers* per rupee, or 4s. 4d. per cwt. Skilled labourers are paid at the rate of from 6d. to 1s. a day, and unskilled labourers, from 3d. to 6d. a day.

Natural Calamities.—Famines, due to drought, occurred before the British occupation in 1759, 1783, 1813, and 1833. Since the British assumed administration, the greatest scarcities have taken place in 1860 and 1867; but Lahore District suffered comparatively little, except from the exportation of its produce to other quarters. Grain rose to 7 *sers* per rupee, or 16s. per cwt. Poorhouses and famine relief works were set on foot, but they proved useful chiefly to the starving refugees from Málwá, Hissár, and the eastern Districts. The construction of the Bári Doáb Canal will probably serve in future to protect the naturally fertile uplands of Lahore from drought. Hail-storms, locusts, and rats sometimes cause considerable damage to the standing crops.

Commerce, Trade, etc.—The trade of the District centres mainly in the city of LAHORE. The chief manufactures comprise silk, cotton, wool, and metal work, none of them of more than local importance. The agricultural produce formerly did not suffice for local consumption, and large quantities of grain were imported to supply the city. Since the opening of the Bári Doáb Canal, however, enormous quantities of wheat and oil-seeds are exported from the Mánjha uplands. The main line of the Sind, Punjab, and Delhi Railway terminates at Lahore, and has stations at Meean Meer and Jallo. A section of the Indus Valley Railway runs to Sher Sháh on the Chenáb, below Múltán (Mooltan), and is continued to Karáchi (Kurrachee) and the sea; and a branch line, constructed in 1883, connects Ráiwind, a station on the Karáchi branch of the railway, with Ganda Singhwála on the Sutlej opposite Firozpur. On the other side, the Northern Punjab State Railway leads towards Pesháwar and the north-west frontier. The Grand Trunk Road enters the District from the east, crosses the Rávi

and the Sutlej by bridges of boats, and from Lahore turns nearly due north on its way to Pesháwar. Other roads connect the capital with surrounding cities and with the lesser towns of the District. The total length of communications is returned as follows:—Navigable rivers, 104 miles; railways, 144 miles; metalled roads, 113½ miles; unmetalled roads, 703 miles. Lines of telegraph run to Ambálá (Umballa), Pesháwar, and Múltán (Mooltan), besides the railway wires, which last are also open to the public.

Administration.—Lahore District is under the Commissioner of the Lahore Division, who is assisted by an Additional Commissioner. The District staff ordinarily comprises a Deputy Commissioner, with 1 Judicial Assistant, 2 Assistant and 3 extra-Assistant Commissioners, besides the usual fiscal, constabulary, and medical officers. In 1882–83, 18 civil and revenue judges and 22 magistrates dispensed justice. The imperial revenue in 1872–73 amounted to £95,285, of which sum £61,031, or nearly two-thirds, was contributed by the land-tax. In 1882–83, the total revenue was returned at £121,537, of which £72,965 was contributed by the land-tax, fixed and fluctuating, the other chief items being stamps, £26,360; excise, £15,701; and local rates, £6510. The District fund showed an income (derived from provincial rates), in 1882–83, of £7660; the expenditure, mainly on education, public works, medical services, post-office, etc., being £4054. In 1882–83, the regular police force numbered 843 officers and men, supplemented by a municipal constabulary of 447 men, and a cantonment police of 67 men at Meean Meer (Mián Mír), besides a few constables supplied to private companies. The total machinery, therefore, for the protection of person and property amounted to 1357 policemen, being at the rate of 1 man to every 581 of the population and every 2·68 square miles of area. In addition to this force, there is a village watch of 1077 *chaukídárs*, receiving a pay of 6s. per month, derived either from a description of octroi, or from a small house tax. The total number of persons brought to trial for all offences committed within the District in 1882 was 12,195. The central jail at Lahore serves as a receiving jail for long-term convicts from other parts of the Province. In 1882 it contained a daily average of 2004 prisoners. During the same year, the female penitentiary, also a Provincial prison, had a daily average of 193 inmates. The District jail in the same year contained an average of 556 prisoners.

Including the Oriental College affiliated to the Punjab University, the Lahore Government College, Training College, the Normal Schools, School of Art, Law School, Veterinary School, Zanána Mission Schools, the St. John's Divinity School (under the management of the Church Missionary Society), the Schools of the American Presbyterian Mission, and several schools for European children, education was carried on in

the District in 1882–83 by 378 aided and unaided schools, having an aggregate roll of 9277 pupils, and maintained at a cost of £6724. The Census of 1881 returned a total of 9815 boys and 657 girls as able to read and write, besides 27,690 males and 917 females able to read and write, but not under instruction. A School of Industry for the instruction of boys in different branches of native handicrafts after leaving their village schools, was established at Kasúr in 1874, and is attended by a daily average of 30 pupils. A staff of master artisans is maintained to teach the boys cloth and carpet weaving, leather work, metal work, tailoring, and embroidery. The weaving industry is the special feature of the institution; and the work turned out is much sought after.

For fiscal and administrative purposes, the District is divided into the 4 *tahsíls* or Sub-divisions of Lahore, Kasúr, Chunián, and Sharakpur. In 1882 it contained 7 municipal towns, namely, Lahore, Kasúr, Khem Karn, Chunián, Sharakpur, Patti, and Khudián. Their aggregate revenue amounted to £41,381, or 4s. 6d. per head of the total population (181,711) within municipal limits.

Medical Aspects.—The District bears a good reputation for general healthiness, though the heat for four or five months reaches an excessive intensity, the thermometer sometimes ranging even at night as high as 105° F. In 1882, the recorded temperature in the shade was as follows for three selected months:—May, maximum 116·5° F., minimum 62·8°, mean 88·8°; July, maximum 111·5°, minimum 75·4°, mean 88·6°; December, maximum 78·7°, minimum 39·5°, mean 58·6° F. The average annual rainfall for the seventeen years ending 1882–83 was 17·8 inches for the District as a whole, varying from a minimum of 12·4 inches in Sharakpur, to 23·9 inches at Meean Meer, and 18·6 inches at Lahore city. September and October form the unhealthiest season of the year; and the valleys of the two great rivers are centres of endemic disease, especially fever.

The vital statistics of 1882 show a total of 26,049 recorded deaths, being at the rate of 28 per thousand. Of these, 17,443, or 18·87 per thousand, were assigned to fever alone. The District contains five Government charitable dispensaries—the Mayo Hospital in Lahore, at Kasúr, at Meean Meer (Mián Mír), Sharakpur, and Chunián. In 1882 they gave relief to a total of 62,215 persons, of whom 2785 were in-patients. Besides these local dispensaries there are also the Medical College, Mayo Hospital, Veterinary School, and Lunatic Asylum, which are all Central Provincial Institutions.

[For further information regarding Lahore, see the *Gazetteer of the Lahore District*, published under the authority of the Punjab Government in 1883–84; the *Report on the Revised Land Settlement of Lahore District*, between 1865 and 1869 (Central Jail Press, Lahore, 1873),

by Mr. Leslie S. Saunders, C.S.; the *Punjab Census Report* for 1881; and the several Provincial Administration and Departmental Reports from 1880 to 1884.

Lahore.—*Tahsíl* of Lahore District, Punjab; occupying the north-eastern corner of the Bári Doáb portion of the District, and lying between 31° 13′ 30″ and 31° 44′ N. lat., and between 74° 2′ 45″ and 74° 42′ E. long. Area, 740 square miles, with (1881) 376 towns and villages, 60,082 occupied houses, and 89,009 families. Total population, 370,796, namely, males 209,164, and females 161,632; proportion of males in total population, 56·4 per cent. Average density of population, 501 persons per square mile; average number of persons per town or village, excluding Lahore city, 609. Classified according to religion, the Muhammadans form the bulk of the population, numbering 234,500 in 1881; Hindus, 91,379; Sikhs, 40,144; Jains, 228; Pársís, 92; Christians, 4440; and 'others,' 13. Of the 376 towns and villages, 234 contain less than five hundred inhabitants, and 79 between five hundred and a thousand. The average annual area under cultivation for the five years from 1877–78 to 1881–82 was 253,199 acres, the area under the principal crops being—Wheat, 92,241 acres; rice, 6538 acres; *joár*, 19,268 acres; Indian corn, 11,343 acres; barley, 9222 acres; gram, 37,825 acres; *moth*, 7536 acres; cotton, 12,622 acres; vegetables, 2777 acres; and sugar-cane, 1444 acres. Total revenue, £20,066. The administrative staff, including the Divisional and District head-quarters, consists of a Commissioner with an Assistant, Deputy Commissioner with a Judicial Assistant, and six extra-Assistant Commissioners, a Cantonment Magistrate at Meeán Meer, a Judge of the Small Cause Court, a *tahsíldár*, a *munsif*, and nine honorary magistrates, exercising criminal jurisdiction only. These officers preside over 14 civil and 13 criminal courts. Number of police circles (*thánás*), 7; strength of regular police, 490 men; besides 322 village watchmen (*chaukídárs*).

Lahore.—City and capital of the Punjab Province, and administrative head-quarters of Lahore Division and District. Lat. 31° 34′ 5″ N., long. 74° 21′ E. Situated 1 mile south of the river Rávi, amid the debris and ruins of the ancient city, whose area the modern town does not nearly cover.

History and Architectural Remains.—Hindu tradition traces the origin of Lahore to Rámá, the hero of the *Rámáyana*, whose two sons, Loh and Kash, founded the sister towns of Lahore and Kasúr. The name has probably been corrupted from Loháwar, or from a still earlier Sanskrit form, Loháwarána. Though little can now be recovered with regard to the date of its foundation, the absence of all mention in Alexander's historians, and the fact that coins of the Græco-Bactrian kings are not found among the ruins, lead to the belief that Lahore

did not exist as a town of any importance during the earliest period of Indian history. On the other hand, Hiuen Tsiang, the Chinese Buddhist pilgrim, notices the city in his *Itinerary;* and it seems probable, therefore, that Lahore first rose into eminence between the 1st and 7th centuries of our era. Its condition under the native Hindu and early Musalmán dynasties belongs rather to the general annals of LAHORE DISTRICT. Governed originally by a family of Chauhán Rájputs, a branch of the house of Ajmere (Ajmír), Lahore fell successively under the dominion of the Ghazní and Ghori Sultáns, who made it the capital of their Indian conquests, and adorned it with numerous buildings, almost all now in ruins.

But it was under the Mughal Empire that Lahore reached its greatest size and magnificence. The reigns of Humáyún, Akbar, Jahángír, Sháh Jahán, and Aurangzeb, form the golden period in the annals and architecture of the city. Akbar enlarged and repaired the fort, and surrounded the town with a wall, portions of which still remain, built into the modern work of Ranjít Singh. Specimens of the mixed Hindu and Saracenic style adopted by Akbar survive within the fort, though largely defaced by later alterations. Under that great Emperor, Lahore rapidly increased in area and population. The most thickly inhabited portion covered the site of the existing town, but long *bázárs* and populous suburbs spread over the now desolate tract without the walls. Jahángír also frequently resided at Lahore, and it was here that his son Khusru rebelled against him. During his reign, the Sikh Guru, Arjún Mall, compiler of the *Adi Granth*, died in prison at Lahore; and the humble shrine of the first Sikh martyr still stands between the Mughal palace and the mausoleum of Ranjít Singh. Jahángír erected the greater Khwábgah or 'Sleeping Palace,' the Motí Masjid or 'Pearl Mosque,' and the tomb of Anárkalli, still used as a station church, although a handsome cathedral church is now (1885) in course of construction. The palace originally consisted of a large quadrangle, surrounded on three sides by a colonnade of red stone pillars, having their capitals intricately carved with figures of peacocks, elephants, and griffins. In the centre of the fourth side, overlooking the Rávi, stood a lofty pavilion in the Mughal style, flanked by two chambers with elaborately decorated verandahs of Hindu architecture. A garden filled the interior space of the quadrangle, with a raised platform of marble mosaic; while beneath the colonnade and pavilion, underground chambers afforded cool retreats from the mid-day sun. But Sikh and European alterations have largely disfigured the beauty of this building, the pavilion having been transformed into a mess-room, and the colonnades walled in to form officers' quarters.

Jahángír's mausoleum at Sháhdra forms one of the chief ornaments of Lahore, though even this has suffered somewhat from depredations.

The marble dome, which once rose over the tomb, was removed by Aurangzeb. The tombs of Núr-Jahán, his devoted wife, and of her brother Asaf Khán, have fared worse, having been stripped of their marble facings and coloured enamels by the Sikhs. Sháh Jahán erected a smaller palace by the side of his father's building, the beauty of which can still be discerned through the inevitable whitewash which covers the marble slabs and hides the depredations of the Sikhs. To the same Emperor is due the range of buildings to the left of the Khwábgah, with octagonal towers, the largest of which, known as the *Saman Búrj*, contains the exquisite pavilion, inlaid with flowers wrought in precious stones, which derives its name of the Naulaka from its original cost of 9 *lákhs;* together with the Shish Mahal, afterwards the reception-room of Ranjít Singh, and interesting as the place where Dhulíp Singh made over the sovereignty of the Punjab to the British Government.

Under Aurangzeb, Lahore began to decline in population. Even before his time, the foundation of Jahánábád or modern Delhi had drawn away the bulk of the classes dependent upon the court; and the constant absence of the Emperor contributed still more to depress the city. Aurangzeb also constructed an embankment for three miles along the Rávi, to prevent inundations, but with such undesirable success that the river completely altered its course, and left the town at a considerable distance. Among his other works, the Jamá Masjid or 'Great Mosque' ranks first, a stiff and somewhat ungraceful piece of architecture, which, by its poverty of detail, contrasts with the gorgeous profuseness of Agra and Delhi.

With the reign of Aurangzeb, the architectural history of Lahore may be said to close, later attempts marking only the rapid decadence of art, which culminated in the tawdry erections of the Sikhs. From the accession of Bahádur Sháh till the establishment of Ranjít Singh's authority at the beginning of the present century, the annals of Lahore consist of successive invasions and conquests by Nádir Sháh, Ahmad Sháh, and many less famous depredators (*see* LAHORE DISTRICT). The magnificent city of the Mughal princes and their viceroys sank into a mere heap of ruins, containing a few scattered houses and a couple of Sikh forts within its shrunken walls; while outside, a wide expanse of broken remains marked the site of the decaying suburbs which once surrounded the capital.

But the rise of Ranjít Singh's empire made Lahore once more the centre of a flourishing though ephemeral kingdom. The great Mahárájá stripped the Muhammadan tombs of their ornaments, which he sent to decorate the temple at Amritsar; but he restored the Shalimár gardens, erected a really beautiful *bárádari* in the space between the palace and the Jamá Masjid, and also built a number of minor erections in the

very worst taste. His mausoleum, a mixed work of Hindu and Muhammadan architecture, forms one of the latest specimens of Sikh workmanship.

In 1846, the British Council of Regency was established at Lahore; and in 1849, the young Mahárájá Dhulíp Singh transferred the government of the Punjab to the East India Company. Lahore thenceforth became the capital of a British Province, and a new impetus was given to its rising prosperity. In 1849, the environs still remained a mere expanse of crumbling ruins, and the houses of the first European residents clustered around the old cantonment, on a strip of alluvial lowland, south of the town, running parallel to a former bed of the Rávi. Gradually, however, the station spread eastward; and now a new town covers a large part of the area once given over to ruins and jungle, while every year sees fresh additions to the renovated capital.

General Appearance, Modern Buildings, etc.—Modern Lahore covers an area of 640 acres, surrounded by a brick wall, which formerly rose to a height of 30 feet, and was strengthened by a moat and other defences. But the moat has been filled in, and the wall lowered to a uniform elevation of 16 feet. A garden now occupies the site of the trench, and encircles the city on every side except the north. Though built upon an alluvial plain, the *débris* of ages has raised the present town to a position upon a considerable mound. A metalled road runs round the outer side of the rampart, and gives access to the city by 13 gates. The citadel or fort rises upon a slight but commanding eminence at the north-eastern angle, and abuts northward on the old river bed, while the esplanade stretches over an open space to the south and east.

Within the city, narrow and tortuous streets, ending in *culs-de-sac*, and lined by tall houses, give Lahore a mean and gloomy appearance; but the magnificent buildings of the Mughal period serve to relieve the general dulness of its domestic architecture. On the north-eastern side especially, the Mosque of Aurangzeb, with its plain white marble domes and simple minarets, the mausoleum of Ranjít Singh, with its rounded roof and projecting balconies, and the desecrated façade of the Mughal palace, stand side by side in front of an open grassy plain, exhibiting one of the grandest *coups-d'œil* to be seen in India.

Outside the wall, with a general southerly direction, lies the European quarter. From the Lohári gate, the long street known as the Anárkalli or Sadr Bázár stretches southward, joining the native town to the civil station and abandoned cantonment of Anárkalli. This portion of the new quarter contains the secretariat, financial offices, chief court, and station church. From Anárkalli the civil station now runs three miles eastward to the Lawrence Gardens and Government House, the extension in this direction being known as Donald Town, from the late Lieutenant-

Governor, Sir Donald M'Leod. A broad road, called the Mall, cuts through the centre of the station, and connects this growing suburb with Anarkalli. North of the Mall, now largely built over, lies the railway station, surrounded by the bungalows of its employés. South of the Mall, again, the suburb of Muzang contains many European residences. The chief public buildings and institutions include the Punjab University, with its Senate Hall (endowed by several native Rájás and Nawábs), the Oriental College, the Lahore Government College, the Medical School, the Central Training College, Law School, Veterinary School, the Lahore High School, the Mayo Hospital (a fine building near the Anárkalli *bázár*, capable of accommodating 110 patients), the Museum, the Roberts Institute for European clerks, the Lawrence and Montgomery Halls, and the Agri-Horticultural Society.

Population.—The population of Lahore city and suburbs, including the cantonment of Meean Meer (Mián Mír), was returned at 125,413 in 1868. By 1881 the population had risen to 149,369, namely, males 87,743, and females 61,626, showing an increase of 23,956, or 19 per cent., in thirteen years. Classified according to religion, the population of the city, suburbs, and cantonment in 1881 was composed as follows:—Muhammadans, 86,413; Hindus, 53,641; Sikhs, 4627; Jains, 227; 'others,' 4461. Number of occupied houses, 24,077. The military cantonment of MEEAN MEER (Mián Mír) lies 3 miles east of the civil station and 6 miles from the city, and forms the head-quarters of the Lahore Military Division. The ordinary garrison consists of two batteries of Royal Artillery, one of Bengal Cavalry, one regiment of British infantry, one of Native infantry, and one of Punjab Pioneers. Total strength of garrison in July 1883, 3692 officers and men. The total population of the cantonment in 1881 was 18,409. The fort of Lahore is garrisoned by small detachments from Meean Meer. The 1st and 3rd Punjab Volunteer Rifles have their head-quarters at Lahore.

Commerce, Communications, etc.—Lahore possesses comparatively little trade, its business being almost confined to the importation of supplies for the consumption of the inhabitants. Small manufactures of silk and gold or silver lace form the chief source of export trade. The total value of the commerce of Lahore in 1871–72 was—imports, £333,834; exports, £12,395. By 1881–82, the imports of Lahore had increased to £790,711; and the exports to £116,837. Railways now connect the capital with most other parts of the Province, and complete the circuit to the frontier and the sea. The terminus of the Sind, Punjab, and Delhi line is at Lahore, and a branch to Sher Sháh on the Chenáb unites the Karáchi (Kurrachee) and Kotri line with the Punjab system. The Northern State Railway runs to Pesháwar. The Grand Trunk Road also passes through

Lahore, and lines of telegraph afford communication with Ambálá (Umballa), Pesháwar, and Múltán (Mooltan). Up till 1881, Lahore was chiefly dependent upon well-water for drinking purposes; but in June of that year, a regular system of water-works, calculated to supply an average of 10 gallons of pure water per head of the population, was opened; its advantages are now much appreciated by the towns-people, although at first there was a good deal of caste prejudice against using the water. The thorough drainage of the city has also been effected since 1881. Accommodation for travellers is provided by numerous hotels; and besides several places of business of European tradesmen and merchants, the Bank of Bengal, Agra Bank, Simla Bank, and Alliance Bank of Simla have all branches in Lahore. The internal affairs of the city are managed by a municipal committee. The income is mainly derived from an octroi duty. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £16,558, or 2s. 6¾d. per head of population (128,441) within municipal limits. In 1881, the population of the municipality, including certain suburbs, but excluding the cantonment of Meean Meer, was 138,878. Total income in 1882-83, £36,407, of which £24,995 was derived from octroi; average incidence of municipal revenue, 5s. 2¾d.; incidence of taxation, 3s. 7¼d. per head.

Lahori Bandar.—Village in Karáchi District, Sind, Bombay Presidency; situated in lat. 24° 32′ N., and long. 67° 28′ E., on the south or left bank of the Baghiár or western branch of the Indus, 20 miles from the Piti mouth. In consequence of the channel on which it is situated having ceased to be navigable, Lahori Bandar has fallen into complete decay; but, according to Thornton, it was once the principal port in Sind, being accessible for ships of 200 tons burden. At the close of the last century there was an English factory here.

Láhul (*Lahaul*).—Sub-division of Kángra District, Punjab, lying between 32° 8′ and 32° 59′ N. lat., and between 76° 49′ and 77° 46′ 30″ E. long.; and comprising the valley between the Chamba mountains on the north-west, and the Kanzam range on the south-east. Area, 2255 square miles. Population (1881) 5860. Láhul is bounded on the north-west by Chamba, on the north-east by the Rúpshu Sub-division of Ladákh, on the south-west by Kángra and Kúlu, and on the south-east by Spiti. For administrative purposes, it forms part of the Kúlu *tahsíl*.

Physical Aspects.—Láhul consists of an elevated and rugged Himálayan valley, traversed by the snow-fed torrents of the Chandra and the Bhága, which take their rise on the slopes of the Bára Lácha Pass, at an elevation of nearly 16,500 feet above sea-level. At Tándi the sister streams unite to form the great river Chenáb, here known as the Chandra-Bhága, which flows immediately into Chamba on its way to the Punjab plain. On either side of the two river glens, and in the

triangular space between them, the mountains rise to the level of perpetual snow, leaving only a narrow strip of wild valley fringing the streams themselves. To the north-east, the peaks about the Bára Lácha pass tower to a height of from 19,000 to 21,000 feet; while the pass itself, the least elevated part of the whole range, is 16,221 feet above sea-level. Between the two rivers, an isolated mass of mountains attains still greater dimensions, consisting of one almost unbroken ice-field, with, at rare intervals, impassable barriers of naked rock. South of the highest peak, 21,415 feet above the sea, a glacier stretches downward for 12 miles; while east and west the hills, though slightly inferior in elevation, still reach the limits of the snow-line, and flank the valley on every side, except along the narrow outlet of the Chenáb. In such a waste of rock and ice, villages can only be planted in a few comparatively favoured spots, among the lower valleys of the Chandra and the Bhága, from old Koksar on the former to Darcha on the latter river. The remainder of Láhul is completely uninhabited, except for a few weeks in summer, when the Kúlu shepherds bring up their flocks for pasturage. Picturesque knots of houses, however, nestle here and there in sheltered nooks, amid green irrigated fields, made beautiful by the exquisite Himálayan flora. Quaint conical buildings, erected in honour of some saint or Lama, stand just outside the villages; while, on the hillside above, the white walls and flying flags of some tiny Buddhist monastery give animation to the scene. The inhabited portions of the Láhul valley have an estimated elevation of 10,000 feet above sea-level. Kangser, the highest village, stands at a height of 11,345 feet. The fact that the main road to Ladákh and Yarkand runs through the valley, from the Rohtang Pass to the Bára Lácha, lends a certain degree of importance to this otherwise insignificant tract. The road is now (1884) in excellent order, and is annually growing in favour with the traders.

History.—The Láhul valley is mentioned as early as the 7th century in the *Itinerary* of Hiuen Tsiang, the Chinese Buddhist pilgrim, who notices it under the name of Lo-hu-lo, as a district lying north-east of Kúlu. In the earliest times, it probably formed a dependency of the Tibetan kingdom; and on the disruption of that empire in the 10th century, it seems to have been included in the principality of Ladákh. We have no information to show the period at which it became independent, though reasons have been adduced for believing that that event preceded the reorganization of Ladákh about 1580. An epoch of native rule under petty chiefs (Thákurs) ensued, during which the various local families appear to have paid tribute to Chamba. Four or five of these families have survived up to the present day, and are still in possession of their original territories, which they hold in *jágír*, subject to the payment of tribute or *nazarána*. About the year 1700, the

supremacy passed to Kúlu, in the reign of Budh Singh, son of Rájá Jagat Singh, a contemporary of Sháh Jahán and Aurangzeb. Thenceforward, Láhul followed the fortunes of KULU, until they passed together under British rule in 1846.

Population.—In 1855, the population of Láhul amounted to only 2535 persons. By 1868, the number had risen to 5970. In 1881, the population was returned at 5860. The slight decrease, however, is believed to be more apparent than real. The Census of 1868 was taken at a time of year when the passes were open; while that of 1881 shows the winter population only, when numbers of the inhabitants were away in Kúlu or Simla. The Thákurs form the gentry of the valley, which they ruled until a recent period. They are pure Bhutias or Tibetans by blood, but affect a Rájput ancestry. The Kanets, who make up the mass of the population, have a mixed Indian and Mongolian origin, the latter element predominating. In religion, the people belong to the Buddhist faith, though a Hinduizing tendency exhibits itself in the distinctions of caste and the prohibition of beef as an article of food, a tendency which is much encouraged by the Thákurs. A few pure Hindus, of Bráhman rank, live in the lower villages, while a mixture of the two faiths occurs commonly in the intervening tract, although they have all returned themselves as Hindus in the Census Report. The use of the Tibetan praying-wheel is nevertheless almost universal. Numerous monasteries stud the hills, the largest being that of Guru Gantál, at the point of confluence of the Chandra and Bhága rivers. Polyandry was formerly customary throughout Láhul, but is now fast dying out; the practice is generally considered shameful, and is not admitted to exist by the people themselves. The Láhulís bear a good character as peaceable and honest mountaineers, but are much addicted to drunkenness and unchastity. The chief villages are Kielang, Kardong, and Kolang.

The houses in Láhul are two and sometimes three storeys high, with flat roofs. The lower storey is occupied by the cattle, horses, sheep, and goats; the upper one contains the rooms lived in by the family. Ordinarily the upper storey consists of an interior or winter room, an outer or summer room, and a verandah room open on the fourth side. In this verandah stands the loom; inside will be found large corn-chests made of slate set in wooden frames, large stone bowls from Iskárdo, iron cauldrons, and cooking-pots, an iron tripod or pot-stand, some wooden dishes, and a few earthen pots from Kúlu. Many pack-saddles for sheep and goats are strewed about, and a few blankets and thick sheep-skin coats hang on the walls. Small holes in the wall serve the purpose both of windows and chimneys; bedsteads are unknown. Grass is stacked on the roof, and wood for fuel inside. Many of the houses are built together in one block with connecting passages, by

which communication is kept up in the winter without going out, which when the snow is very deep, may be scarcely possible. Spinning thread is the chief occupation in winter; on fine days the loom is brought out, and some weaving done. Both men and women work the loom. The Moravian Church has a mission station at Kielang village, with a small following of about 30 members.

Agriculture, Trade, etc.—Out of a total area of 2255 square miles, only 5 square miles are returned as under cultivation. Barley forms the principal crop, but wheat grows in the lower glens. Cultivation depends entirely on small irrigation canals, constructed and kept in repair by the village landowners. The grain produced does not suffice for local consumption, and has therefore to be supplemented by imports from Kúlu. The Láhulís hold in their hands the trade between Ladákh and Central Asia on the one hand, and Kúlu and the Punjab on the other. Collecting their merchandise from the north, they pass annually into Kúlu at the end of summer, driving their ponies and donkeys, goats and sheep, laden with *pashm* or shawl-wool, borax, and cloth; while on their return journey they bring metal vessels, sugar, rice, wheat, tobacco, pepper, ginger, and turmeric.

The Láhulís keep only a few sheep and goats, as the snow lies too long and too deep in the winter for the flocks to live out of doors as they do in Ladákh. For a very long time, therefore, the upper ends of the main valleys, which are uninhabited, and the grounds high above the villages in the inhabited parts, have been utilized by the shepherds of Kángra, Chamba, and Kúlu. The snow begins to disappear in these places about the beginning of June; the shepherds do not ordinarily enter Láhul before the end of that month, and they leave it again early in September, by which time the frost is keen, and the rainy season in the outer Himálayas has come to an end. In the fine dry climate of Láhul the sheep escape foot-rot and other diseases which constantly attack flocks kept during the rains on the southern slopes of the outer Himálayas. The sheep arrive wretchedly thin, but by the time they are ready to leave are in splendid condition. A short fine grass of a dull bluish-green colour, called *niru*, is their favourite food; *mat* and *morár* are names of other good kinds of grasses. The goats depend very much on the leaves and twigs of the birch and bush willow.

Administration.—The valley forms part of Kúlu *tahsíl*. The revenue amounts to £185. The Government established a school at Kielang, where, till recently, Urdu and Tibetan were taught, under the supervision of the Moravian missionaries. It was found necessary to close the school in 1882; but it is expected to be reopened, the principal Thákurs being willing to contribute towards its maintenance. A post-office is kept open at Kielang during the summer months. The mean

temperature at Kardong is 46° F. in March, 59° F. in June, and 29° F. in September.

Láichanpur.—Port on the Kánsbáns river, Balasor District, Bengal. The mouth of the river has now nearly silted up, and is concealed by a dense fringe of jungle. It is not navigable by vessels of more than 45 tons burden. The rice sloops taking in cargoes at this port load while at anchor several miles out to sea, the rice being carried to them in small boats. The sloops come as near the coast as the high tide permits, and when the water recedes they are left resting on a soft and yielding cushion of mud; the vessels are thus secure in case of storms. In 1873–74, the value of the imports of Láichanpur, and its sister port CHURAMAN, amounted to £251, and that of the exports to £13,831. In 1881–82, the imports were valued at £3062, and the exports at £8710.

Láira (*Lehira*).—Estate or *zamíndárí* in Sambalpur *tahsíl*, Sambalpur District, Central Provinces. Lat. 21° 44′ N., long. 84° 17′ E.; 17 miles north-east of Sambalpur town. Area, 46 square miles, nearly the whole of which is cultivated. Chief products—rice, pulses, oil-seeds, and sugar-cane. Iron-ore is found. Number of villages 25, with a total of 1543 houses. Total population (1881) 5932, namely, males 2974, and females 2958. The high road to Ránchi passes through the western portion of the estate. The estate was originally granted as a *jágír* to the ancestor of the present chief in 1777, by the Rájá of Sambalpur, as a reward for military services rendered. The *jágír* was afterwards resumed and converted into an ordinary estate held on *zamíndárí* tenure. The late *zamíndár*, Sibnáth Singh, was noted as being the only Gond chief who did not join the mutineers in the disturbances of 1857 and 1858. He died a few years ago, and was succeeded by his son Bindraban Singh, who is still (1884) a minor.

Láit-máo-doh.—Mountain range in the Khási Hills, Assam. Highest peak, 5377 feet above sea-level.

Lá-ká-dong (or *Umat*).—Village in the south of the Jaintia Hills, Assam; 2200 feet above sea-level. There is a coal-field here, with an estimated area of 0·394 square mile, and a marketable out-turn of 1,100,000 tons. The mineral is of an excellent quality either for producing gas or coke. From its composition, quick combustion, and irregular cleavage, it is computed to be about 6 per cent. inferior to good English coal. The great difficulty in its profitable working lies in the want of means of communication. Lá-ká-dong is 6 miles from Borghát, a village on the Thantidu or Hari river, a tributary of the Surmá, which is navigable all the year round by boats of about 28 *maunds* burden; but from Lá-ká-dong to Borghát only coolie-carriage is at present available. The mine is the sole property of Government, which leased the rights of working to a succession of European capitalists from 1848 to 1859.

During that period about 5000 tons of coal were raised for exportation. The mine is no longer worked.

Lákápádar.—Petty State in the Tháláwár division of Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency, consisting of 1 village, with 1 proprietor. Situated 20 miles south of Amreli, and 9 west-south-west of Kandla. Area, 5 square miles. Population (1881) 413. Estimated revenue (1881), £300; tribute of £15, 8s. is paid to the Gáekwár of Baroda, and £2, 8s. to the Nawáb of Junágarh. Post-office and school.

Lakhandái. — Tributary of the BAGHMATI river, Bengal; a small stream, which rises in Nepál, and enters Muzaffarpur District at Itarwá. After being joined by the Sauran and Básíád, it becomes more important; its breadth here is 40 yards, and depth 15 feet. Flows south and joins the Bághmatí 7 or 8 miles south of the Darbhangah-Muzaffarpur road, which is carried over it by an iron girder bridge. In the rains, the Lakhandái is navigable as far as Sítámarhí by boats of nearly 20 tons burden; but above this village a rapid current renders navigation dangerous. The Rájápatí, Dumrá, Beláhí, Serpur, and Rájkhand indigo factories draw their water from this stream.

Lakhát.—Village on the border of Sylhet District, Assam, at the south foot of the Khási Hills. The market, which is held every fourth day, is frequented by Khási and Santeng traders, who bring down potatoes, betel-nuts, *pán*, oranges, and other produce of their hills to exchange for cotton goods, salt, rice, and hardware.

Lakhi (*Laki*).—Mountain range in Sind, Bombay Presidency. Connected with the Hála or Brahui mountains in Baluchistán; the most easterly of a number of hill ranges in the western part of Sind, extending between Baluchistán and the alluvial tract of the Indus, and also between the desert of Shikárpur and Karáchi (Kurrachee). Length of range, about 50 miles; greatest elevation, 1500 to 2000 feet. Lat. (centre) 26° N., long. 67° 50′ E. The mountains are for the most part of recent formation, containing marine remains in great quantities. Huge fissures, apparently produced by earthquakes, traverse this range; and the frequent occurrence of hot springs and of sulphurous exhalations is a sign of volcanic action. Some parts, again, appear to be of more ancient formation, as they yield lead, antimony, and copper. The whole tract is wild and dreary. Near the town of Sehwán, the Lakhi range terminates abruptly on the Indus, in a nearly perpendicular face of rock 600 feet high, which presents an imposing appearance from the river.

Lakhi (*Laki*).—Village and railway station in Sehwán Sub-division, Karáchi (Kurrachee) District, Sind, Bombay Presidency; situated close to the west bank of the Indus, and adjacent to the entrance of what is known as the Lakhi Pass, through which runs the Sind, Punjab, and Delhi Railway. The place is picturesquely situated, the Lakhi Moun-

tains, here of considerable elevation, sloping down to the west of the town, which is on the main road leading from Kotri to Sehwán. Branch road to the Dhára Tirth or 'hot springs,' distant about 2 miles. From Sehwán this village is distant 12 miles south, and from Mánjhand 32 miles north-west. Post-office, *dharmsála*, and police lines. Population in 1881, inconsiderable.

Lakhi (*Laki*).—Town in Shikárpur District, Sind, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 27° 51′ 30″ N., long. 68° 44′ E.; elevation above sea, 234 feet. Lakhi is 3½ miles distant from the junction station, Ruk, of the Sind, Punjab, and Delhi line, and is situated on the main road between Shikárpur and Sukkur (8 miles south of the former), and has road communication also with the villages of Mári and Kazi-Wáhan. Lakhi is the head-quarters station of a *tapadár*, and contains a travellers' bungalow, school, and cattle pound. Police post of 6 men. Population in 1881, inconsiderable. The town of Lakhi is of ancient date, and was the chief place of that part of Sind known as Burdika and Larkhána, at a time when the present site of Shikárpur was covered with thick forest. Soon after the founding of Shikárpur, Lakhi dwindled away in size and importance.

Lakhimpur. — British District occupying the extreme eastern portion of the Province of Assam; situated on both banks of the Brahmaputra, and lying between 26° 51′ and 27° 54′ N. lat., and between 93° 49′ and 96° 4′ E. long. The area within these limits is estimated at about 11,500 square miles, but the greater portion is sparsely occupied by hill tribes, who do not acknowledge the regular authority of the British Government. The settled portion of the District was ascertained by the recent Survey to cover an area of 3723 square miles, with a population, including certain hill tribes in the unsurveyed tracts, of 179,893, according to the Census of 1881. The administrative head-quarters are at DIBRUGARH, near the confluence of the Dibru river with the Brahmaputra.

The District, in its wider sense, is bounded on the north by the Daphlá, Mírí, Abar, and Mishmí Hills; east by the Mishmí and Singpho Hills; south by the watershed of the Pátkai range and the Nágá Hills; west by the Districts of Darrang and Sibságar, the former District being separated by the Marámarnái river, and the latter by the Dihing and Disang rivers. To the north and east the frontier remains undefined and undeclared; on the extreme south, an agreement has been arrived at between the British and Burmese Governments, but a debateable land is occupied by various savage communities who cling to their independence.

Physical Aspects.—Lakhimpur consists of a narrow strip of level country fringing both banks of the Brahmaputra, from which the hills rise abruptly north, south, and east. It is situated at the head of

the Assam valley, where the Brahmaputra and its great tributaries burst through the gorges of the Himálayas. The scenery is both varied and picturesque. Along the banks of the river grow gigantic grasses and reeds. Farther inland are seen extensive paddy fields, dotted with villages, which are encircled by groves of bamboo and fruit-trees. In the distance, black, pathless forests stretch away from the lower slopes high up towards the snow-capped mountains. Except in the unsurveyed tracts, there are no hills within the District. In the south-east, however, near Jaipur, there are a few small knolls, rising 200 or 300 feet above the plain.

The river system is constituted by the Brahmaputra and its numerous tributaries and offshoots. The great river itself flows through the District for a distance of 400 miles. As far as Dibrugarh, it is navigable for steamers and large native boats at all seasons of the year. During the rains, steamers can get up to Sadiyá; above that place the current is rapid, but the passage of canoes is possible almost to the Brahmakund. The real source and early channel of the Brahmaputra has not yet been definitely ascertained. The same may be said of its two great tributaries, the Dibang and Dihang, the latter of which breaks through the Himálayas, and both of which join the Brahmaputra in Lakhimpur District. It is now, however, almost certain that the Dihang is identical with the Tsanpu or great river of Tibet, and is the main source of the Brahmaputrá. Neither the Dibang nor Dihang is at any season navigable by craft larger than canoes. The other important tributaries of the Brahmaputra are—on the north bank, the Subansiri, which is navigable for some distance by steamers, and itself receives numerous hill streams; on the south bank, the Noa Dihing, the Dibru and Burí Dihing, Tingrái-nadi, and Sessa. The Lohit is a large branch of the Brahmaputra, said to have been produced by the floods of the Subansiri; it flows parallel to the main stream for a winding course of about 70 miles.

No rivers or marshes have been embanked for the purpose of extending cultivation since the British annexation of the country, but some of the embankments constructed by the old Assamese rulers of the Province have been repaired and kept in order. There are large tracts of river and marsh land which could be reclaimed if required, but at present the population is not sufficiently numerous to bring under tillage the lands already cultivable. The wild reeds indigenous to the marshes are utilized for walling the houses. In 1882, the right of fishing in the rivers was leased out by Government for £463.

In the settled portion of the District, forests are estimated to cover an area of 2950 square miles; and a considerable area has been brought under the supervision of the Forest Department. Owing to an improvident system of leasing, and for other reasons, the plains have now been nearly stripped of the valuable caoutchouc or india-rubber

tree. Uncultivated pasture lands of wide extent are to be found all over the District, but their area and extent cannot be estimated, as they have never been defined or separated from the interminable jungle waste which stretches around in every direction. None of the inhabitants gain their livelihood by pasturing cattle in the forests. The principal jungle products are silk, beeswax, and various drugs and dyes, brought to the market by the hill tribes, who combine this pursuit with agriculture.

Wild animals of all kinds abound, including elephants, rhinoceros, buffaloes, the *mithun* or wild cow, bears, and deer. The right of capturing wild elephants is a Government monopoly, and is annually farmed out. From £2000 to £3000 a year used to be realized from this source, in addition to a royalty of £10 on each elephant captured, which increased the sum above mentioned by about one-half. Of late years, very much reduced prices have been received for these elephant farms, the reason being that to make elephant-hunting profitable, a large initial expense is required, which any ordinary lessee cannot afford. There is no lack of elephants, however, in the District, and a Government *kheddah* might very profitably be established here.

The mineral wealth of Lakhimpur has not yet been developed. Coal and petroleum are known to exist in many spots near Jaipur and Mákum, and arrangements have been recently made to open out these localities by means of a railway from Dibrugarh, the head-quarters town. A large demand for coal by the River Steamer Company is anticipated, and also an increased use of coal or coke in the tea factories. In January 1883, prior to the opening up of the Mákum railway, coal was difficult to procure at 4s. a cwt. in Dibrugarh, but it is thought that the railway company will probably be able to supply it at one-third of this cost. Limestone is found in the bed of the Brahmaputra, near Sadiyá, and in its tributaries from the Mishmí Hills, but not in any large masses. Traces of iron exist, and the coal near Mákum contains sulphur in rather large quantities. Fine clay also occurs in connection with the coal. From time immemorial, gold has been washed in many of the rivers, particularly the Subansiri and its tributaries north of the Brahmaputra. Formerly a class of gold-washers, called Sonwáls (from *Son*, gold), used, it is believed, to make considerable profits from this source; but the great demand for labour caused by the introduction of tea cultivation, and the consequent increase in wages and prices, has almost entirely put a stop to the industry. In 1883, the right of searching for gold in the Subansiri river and its tributaries was let at a nominal rate for a period of ten years to a European planter of the District, Mr. Scott-Campbell; and it is possible that there may be a resuscitation of the industry, although the

results of Mr. Campbell's operations are not known. Many salt and mineral springs are found in the low hillocks throughout the District. The most noticeable are the brine springs at Borhát, which at one time yielded great quantities of salt, but are now hardly worked at all.

Two picturesque gorges worthy of notice are situated in Lakhimpur. The Brahmakund or Parasurámkund is the gorge through which the smallest and most southerly branch of the Brahmaputra (which alone bears the name of the great river) finds its way to the plains. It is a famous place of pilgrimage, and is annually resorted to by large numbers of Hindu devotees, although the journey to it is both difficult and dangerous. The Deo Dubi or Pool of the Demon is a dark pool of great depth in the gorge through which the Disang river leaves the Nágá Hills.

History.—This tract of country figures largely in the annals of Assam, as the region where successive invaders from the east first reached the Brahmaputra, and as being always inhabited by a turbulent population. The earliest traditions, if trustworthy, indicate that Lakhimpur was in remote times the centre of a flourishing Hindu civilisation, connected with the name of a Pál dynasty. The first invaders were the Bára (or twelve) Bhuiyás, who are supposed to have been leaders of a colony, driven from the western Provinces of India by domestic convulsions. To these chiefs is attributed the construction of the large tanks still to be seen in the neighbourhood of Bánskáta and Lakhimpur town; but they have left no traces in the present population of the country. The Bára Bhuiyás are said to have been driven out by the Chutiás, the first of the races of Shan origin who penetrated into Assam. The Chutiá kingdom appears to have centred on the banks of the Subansiri river, and to have been of no long duration. The Chutiás were in their turn driven out by the Ahams, whose arrival is placed in the 13th century. The Chutiás sustained the struggle for some years, but in the end were completely defeated, many of them being removed to the tract now known as Chutiá, in the adjoining District of Darrang. The Ahams are also a tribe of Shan descent, whose original home was in the hilly tract of country known as the Kingdom of Pong. Their modern representatives are quiet agriculturists; but at the time of the conquest the Ahams were undoubtedly a fierce and warlike race, with great capacity for administration. They gradually extended their rule down the valley of the Brahmaputra; and on the frontier of Bengal defended themselves successfully against the generals of the Mughal Emperor, Aurangzeb. It is also said that the neighbouring hill tribes acknowledged an allegiance to the Aham kings, which some of them now refuse to British authority. The greatest of the dynasty was Rájá Rudra Singh, under whom all Assam was flourishing and peaceful.

The downfall of Aham rule in Lakhimpur is assigned to the reign of

Gaurináth Singh, who was driven out of his capital into Lower Assam, and left this prosperous tract to be devastated by the insurgents. It was at this time that the race known as Moámáriá or Maran established their independence on the south bank of the Brahmaputra; while the Khamtís ravaged the north-east corner in the neighbourhood of Sadiyá. Order had scarcely been restored under the administration of the Bará Gosáin, when the Burmese commenced their series of invasions which finally depopulated the whole country. On one occasion the inhabitants made a desperate stand in the neighbourhood of Lakhimpur town, but they were completely defeated, and the survivors were exposed to most wanton cruelties.

The misfortunes of Lakhimpur did not cease even with the expulsion of the Burmese in 1825. For several years after the British had nominally annexed the whole Province of Assam, they were unable to spare a single European officer for the civil administration of this remote tract. The southern region, known as Matak, and now included within the Sub-division of Dibrugarh, was allowed to remain under its native chief, whose rule was of a mild and patriarchal character. But on the death of the old chief in 1839, the conditions proposed to his successor were not accepted, and the country was then taken under direct British management. In the same year, it was resolved to dispossess Rájá Purandar Singh, who had been placed over a tract stretching across both banks of the Brahmaputra, which corresponds to the eastern half of the Sub-division of North Lakhimpur and all Sibságar District. The misrule of the governor, the exactions of his subordinates, and the aggressions of the hill tribes, had reduced this tract to extreme desolation. So late as 1853, it was described as 'a wilderness from which it will take years to recover;' and even at the present day it is the most sparsely populated portion of the Province. The third portion of the District, called Sadiyá, had also been allowed to continue under a native governor, who was in this case a Khamtí chief. In 1835, it was found necessary to place the administration under the control of the military officer who had from the first been stationed at Sadiyá town. Four years later, the Khamtís swept down from the hills, destroyed the town, and cut to pieces the detachment of Sepoys, together with Major White, the commandant and Political Agent. Since 1839, when the entire District was resumed by the British, such inroads have been successfully checked. The hill tribes are learning the advantages of peaceful intercourse; agriculture is extending on the plains, and the introduction of the tea plant has opened a new era of prosperity.

Population.—Two early estimates of the population of the regularly settled part of the District are in existence, which give elaborate details, and are said to have been arrived at after actual counting. The

enumeration in 1847–48 showed a total of 81,917 persons, who had increased by 1852–53 to 85,296. The regular Census of 1871–72 returned the population of the settled and revenue-paying tract at 121,267; while that of 1881 showed that the population had risen to 179,893, being considerably more than double the population of 1848, and 48·34 per cent. increase on that of 1872. In 1881, however, the entire District was censused; and a considerable portion of the increase is explained by the fact that in 1881 some 4000 Khamtis and Singphos, who live on the extreme border, were enumerated for the first time, as well as a large number of Ahams and other settlers in the jungle. The results of the Census of 1881 may be briefly summarized as follows:—Area of regularly settled District, 3723 square miles, with 1100 villages, and 29,255 occupied houses. Total population, 179,893, namely, males 96,335, and females 83,558; proportion of males, 53·6 per cent. Average density of population, 48·32 persons per square mile; villages per square mile, ·29; houses, 7·87 per square mile; inmates per house, 6·5. Classified according to age, the Census Report returned the population as follows:—Under 15 years of age, males 38,370, and females 34,090; total children, 72,460, or 40·2 per cent. of the population: 15 years of age and upwards, males 57,965, and females 49,468; total adults, 107,433, or 59·8 per cent. In religion, the population consists of—Hindus, 152,190, or 84·5 per cent.; Muhammadans, 5824; Buddhists, 4657; Christians, 837; Jains, 3; and hill tribes still professing aboriginal religions, 16,382.

As might be anticipated from the history and geographical position of Lakhimpur, the proportion of Hindus proper, and especially of high-caste Hindus, is lower than in any other District of Assam. The Bráhmans number 1363, the Rájputs 1791, the Káyasths 2070, and the Agarwalas, the trading castes from the north-west, 396. By far the most numerous caste is the Kalitá (7742), the former priests of the aboriginal kings of Assam; they have now taken to agriculture, and rank as pure Súdras. Other Hindu castes, based upon race rather than religion, are returned at 52,395.

The tribes ranked in the Census Report as semi-Hinduized aborigines constitute more than half the total population. The most numerous tribe is the Aham, the former rulers of the country, who still number 51,588, or almost the same number as the Hindus proper. Next come the kindred Chutiás (16,708); the Doms, a tribe of peculiar exclusiveness in Assam (11,765); and the Kochs (4598).

The pure aborigines consist of three classes—representative communities of the neighbouring hill tribes; immigrants of old standing, such as the Cacharís; and labourers on the tea plantations recently imported from the western Districts of Bengal and from Behar. The neighbouring hill tribes may again be sub-divided into two broadly

distinguished races—(1) those of Shan descent, who have forced their way across the hills from the south, represented by the Khamtís and Singphos, who are Buddhists; (2) a group of Indo-Chinese origin, comprising the Mishmís, Abars, Míris, Daphlás, and Akás, who occupy the slopes and spurs of the Himálayas along the north of the District. The great bulk of these tribes live in mountain fastnesses, far beyond the British frontier; but all of them have sent out little colonies, who settle down peaceably on the borders of the plains, and learn the arts of agriculture and commerce. The aboriginal tribes in Lakhimpur, Hindus and non-Hindus, are represented as follows:—Abars, 821; Ahams, 51,588; Chutiás, 16,708; Daphlás, 210; Cacharís, 18,699; Khamtís, 2883; Kochs, 4598; Lalungs, 730; Manipurís, 99; Mataks, 220; Mikirs, 2752; Mishmís, 681; Míris, 11,687; Nagas, 230; Nepális, 879; Rabhas, 390; Santáls, 1035; and Singphos, 1774. It is reported that large numbers of the hill tribes are annually converted from their indigenous forms of demon-worship to Hinduism.

The faith of Islám now makes no progress. The comparatively large number of Musalmáns in this remote corner, into which the Mughal armies never penetrated, is attributed partly to the fact that the Aham kings used to import Muhammadan artificers for their public works, and partly to a later immigration of shopkeepers from Dacca. The Faráizí or reforming spirit is said to have made some progress among them. Of the 837 Christians, 227 are Europeans or Eurasians, and 610 natives. The majority of the native Christians consist of tea labourers imported from Chutiá Nágpur. The Matak tribe represents the Moámáriás or Marans, who inhabit the south-eastern portion of the District. They became converts to the Vishnuite form of Hinduism at an early period; and their persecution by the Durgá-worshipping kings of Assam led to many outbreaks, and ultimately to the assertion of their independence.

Towns and Villages.—The most populous place in Lakhimpur District, and the only place with a population exceeding 5000, is the civil station of DIBRUGARH, situated on the Dibru river, a few miles above its junction with the Brahmaputra. It contains (1881) 1660 houses and 7153 inhabitants, including 1736 in the cantonments. Other places of some importance as centres of river traffic are—LAKHIMPUR, the head-quarters of the Sub-division of the same name; and SADIYA, which is occupied as a frontier station by a detachment of Native infantry. An annual fair is held at Sadiyá in the month of February, on which occasion Government presents are distributed among the frontier tribes. No tendency is perceptible on the part of the population to gather into towns or centres of commerce or industry, except at the head-quarters town of Dibrugarh, where the population has considerably increased of late years. Of the 1100 villages returned

by the Census, no less than 941 had less than two hundred inhabitants; 152 from two to five hundred; 5 from five hundred to a thousand; and 2 upwards of a thousand inhabitants.

Material Condition of the People.—The peasantry, as a rule, are well off. Their wants are, comparatively speaking, few, and easily supplied by their own industry. With the exception of such articles as salt or opium, all their actual necessaries are supplied from their own agricultural produce. Money is very little used by the Assamese peasant, and only passes through his hands in small quantities for the purchase of a little salt, betel-nut, and opium; with now and then a cooking utensil, a cotton cloth for a garment, or an ornament for his wife. He has, further, to pay his rent in money. He cultivates his land himself, with the assistance of his family, for the purpose of producing the different articles of food required, and subsists almost entirely upon the products of his own little plot. His meal of rice is supplemented by some herbs gathered in the fields and ponds, or else raised in his own garden; and also by very small fishes caught in the small streams, marshes, ponds, and even in the ditches. Many varieties of edible roots, vegetables, and fruits grow wild, and only require to be looked for. To clothe himself and his family he rears silkworms; either the *eriá* worm, which feeds on the leaves of the castor-oil plant growing in his little patch of garden land, and which is reared in the house; or the *mugá* worm, which feeds on the leaves of the *súm* tree, and is partially reared out of doors. His wife weaves the cloth and makes it up. Even oil need not be bought, as he can grow mustard seed in his own garden, and extract the oil by means of a rude press. To pay the rent of his land, he sells a small portion of his rice and silk. The rate of the land-tax is very light, being less than the value of two hundredweights of uncleaned rice per acre, or from 3s. to 3s. 9d. per acre, according to the locality and the description of the land.

Under such circumstances it would naturally be supposed that the Assamese peasant was prosperous. But, unfortunately, owing to his inveterate indolence and addiction to the use of opium, his condition is not so good as it is sometimes supposed to be, and he is very often in arrears with his rent, even when he has means to pay.

The people are extremely averse to working for daily wages, as they affirm that by so doing they compromise their respectability. The indigenous population furnishes very few permanent labourers to the tea-gardens. These consist principally of Santáls from Chutiá Nágpur, low castes from the upper Districts of Bengal and from the North-Western Provinces, together with some local labourers from Lower Assam. The trading community consists chiefly of Márwáris from the Rájputána States; the shopkeepers are mostly Musalmáns from Dacca

and Sylhet. With regard to occupation, the Census of 1881 divided the male population into the following six classes:—(1) Professional classes, including all civil and military officials and the learned professions, 1621; (2) domestic class, 1072; (3) commercial class, including merchants, traders, carriers, etc., 1162; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, including gardeners, 58,396; (5) manufacturing and industrial class, 1617; (6) indefinite and non-productive class (comprising 246 general labourers and 32,311 male children and unspecified), 34,267.

Agriculture.—As throughout the rest of Assam, rice forms the one staple crop, the only other cereal cultivated being Indian corn in small quantities. Rice is sub-divided into two usual crops—the *sáli*, sown in low lands about July, transplanted in the following month, and reaped in December; the *áhu* or *áus*, sown in high lands about March, not generally transplanted, and reaped in October. The green crops grown in the District consist of many varieties of pulses, and mustard grown as an oil-seed. The miscellaneous crops comprise several sorts of fibres and of sugar-cane, mulberry, long pepper, potatoes, and pumpkins. Among fruit-trees, are the orange, lime, lemon, citron, and plantain.

In 1871 it was estimated that 61,490 acres were actually under cultivation in Lakhimpur District, or only one hundred and fiftieth part of the total area. The several crops were thus apportioned:—Rice, 39,460 acres; tea, 15,000; pulses, 2130; vegetable and potatoes, 1000 each; cotton, 850; oil-seeds, 750; sugar-cane, 300; other crops, 1000 acres. About 2300 acres bore a second crop of vegetables, oil-seeds, or pulses. By 1883–84 the cultivated area had increased to 126,021 acres, or, deducting 1460 acres cropped more than once, to 124,561 acres. The area under the different crops was returned as follows:—Rice, 70,928 acres; other food-grains, 8101 acres; oil-seeds, 1384 acres; sugar-cane, 884 acres; cotton, 1050 acres; jute, 200 acres; tea, 36,873 acres; miscellaneous crops, 6601 acres. Manure is not generally used, except for sugar-cane, and then in the form of the sweepings of cattle-sheds. It is stated, however, that the dead fish left on the lowlands after the subsidence of the annual inundations, serve as a natural fertilizer. Irrigation from neighbouring tanks or pools is sometimes resorted to in the case of the rice crop.

The entire soil is the property of Government. Leases are granted to the individual cultivators at the following rates, which are common to all Assam:—For *basti* or homestead lands, 6s. an acre; for *rupit* or low-lying lands, on which rice is grown, 3s. 9d. an acre; for *faringháti* or dry lands, suited for vegetables, etc., 3s. an acre. In early times the revenue used to be collected by means of a poll-tax, varying in amount from 1s. to 2s. a head; an assessment on the land

was first introduced in 1841. Certain classes, such as the Míris occupying the sub-hill tracts, and the Mataks, still pay a poll-tax, the rate being 6s. a head. The average out-turn from an acre of *rupit* land is estimated at about 26 cwts. of unhusked rice of the *sáli* crop; from an acre of *faringháti* land, about 12 cwts. of *áus* unhusked rice. From both lands a second crop is sometimes raised, which may amount to 13 cwts. of either pulses or fibres, or half that weight of cotton.

A farm of about ten acres in extent is considered a large holding for a peasant; one of five acres as a comfortable medium-sized one; while one of two acres is reckoned as very small, and as a rule is only held by a man who has some auxiliary means of subsistence. A cultivator with a five-acre holding is considered to be as well off as a respectable retail shopkeeper, and in better circumstances than a man earning 16s. a month in money wages. The peasantry, on the whole, are free from debt.

Within the past twenty years, since tea cultivation has been conducted on an extensive scale, rates of wages have more than doubled; ordinary labour, in fact, is almost unobtainable. The construction of the Assam railway to Makúm has temporarily had the effect of enhancing the rates still further. Day-labourers now receive from 6d. to 1s. a day; bricklayers, from 1s. to 1s. 6d.; and smiths and carpenters, from 2s. to 4s. The price of food-grains has risen in an equal proportion. Best rice now sells at about 14s. per cwt.; common rice, at about 7s. 6d.; and common unhusked rice, at 5s. Prices were not affected by the famine of 1866.

Lakhimpur District is not specially liable to the calamities of flood or drought. The harvest is not known to have failed generally within the memory of the present generation. In the event of a deficient rainfall, the augmented produce of the low-lying lands and the marshes would probably compensate for the failure of the crops on the higher levels. A few embankments are in existence as a protection against excessive inundations, but they have been suffered to fall into a bad state of repair. If the price of common unhusked rice were to rise to 5s. 5d. per cwt. in the rural markets in the month of January, that should be regarded as a sign of approaching failure of the local harvest, but not of distress, as wages are very high and the country is easy of access for supplies from without.

Manufactures, etc. — Local manufactures consist chiefly of mats, basket-work, and silk cloth, which are made up by the people themselves, each family providing for its own wants. There are a few potters and braziers; but the pottery manufactured is of the poorest description, and the importation of cheap brass utensils from Bengal has destroyed the native manufacture, which was of well amalgamated metal and of a handsome shape. The silk cloth, known as *mugá*, is

made from the cocoons of the *mugá* worm (Saturnia assamungis), which feeds on the leaves of the *súm* tree. This moth is found wild in the jungle; but domesticated worms imported from Nowgong or Kámrúp are alone used for silk. While feeding on the *súm* trees, constant care has to be taken to protect the worms from their enemies of the bird and insect world. A thousand cocoons will produce from 6 to 8 ounces of silk thread, which is worth from 10s. to 11s. per pound. A silk waist-cloth (*dhutí*), 18 feet long by 3 feet wide, sells for from £1, 4s. to £2, according to quality. Very little silk is exported, and the manufacture has greatly fallen off since the prosperous days of the Aham kings. Singphos, Khamtís, and other hill tribes wear tartans of various kinds, both in silk and cotton. Some of their dyes are indigenous, but they now largely employ thread coloured with aniline dyes, which they procure from Márwárí merchants.

Tea. — The cultivation and manufacture of tea is conducted by European capital and under European supervision. Lakhimpur District was the scene of the first attempts at tea cultivation by the Government about the year 1835, and the Assam Company commenced operations here in 1840. After having passed through periods of depression, arising from reckless speculation and want of experience, the industry has now reached a stable position, and has made great strides in recent years. In 1874 there were 112 gardens under plant, covering an area of 89,370 acres, of which 11,680 acres were actually in bearing. The total out-turn was 1,811,920 lbs., showing an increase of 320,725 lbs. on the previous year. The number of European superintendents employed was 42, with 176 native assistants; the total number of labourers was 10,612, of whom 7936 had been imported under contract from Bengal. At the end of 1881, 202 gardens were in existence, with a total area of 92,982 acres of land taken up for tea, of which 18,876 acres were under mature, and 6386 acres under immature plant. The total out-turn of tea was 5,735,955 lbs. The Census Report returned the population on the tea-gardens at 37,295, of whom 8961 were natives of Assam, 28,463 were natives from other Indian Provinces, and 141 natives of countries outside India, presumably Europeans.

Hopes have been entertained that the mineral wealth of Lakhimpur would also attract European capital. In 1866, operations were commenced in the coal-field near Jaipur, where the coal is of excellent quality, and can be quarried without mining. About 6700 tons in all were raised; but it was found that the mineral could not be brought to market at a sufficiently low rate to enable it to compete with imports from Bengal. At the same time, a scheme for working the petroleum wells in the neighbourhood of the coal-field was taken up with much energy, but it was unfortunately broken off, owing to the death of its promoter. In 1882, however, the Assam Railway and Trading Com-

pany, having obtained concessions from Government, commenced laying a line of railway on the metre gauge from Dibrugarh to Sadiyá, with a branch line to Makúm, of which 70 miles were opened up to the end of March 1884. Two coal mines in the Makúm field have been opened; and it is hoped that these mines, which appear exceedingly rich, will in time supply not only all Assam, but even Calcutta with coal and coke of excellent quality. It is also proposed to reopen the petroleum springs near Makúm, the concession of working which has been granted to the Assam Railway and Trading Company for a term of years.

The rivers constitute the principal means of communication in Lakhimpur. In addition, there were, in 1882, 332 miles of District roads, maintained at a cost of £1600, besides 93 miles of Imperial roads. As above stated, the Assam Railway had 70 miles open for traffic up to March 1884.

The commerce of the District is entirely conducted by river; and is mainly in the hands of Márwáris from the north-west, and Musalmáns from Dacca. The chief centres of trade are Dibrugarh, Lakhimpur town, Jaipur, and Sadiyá. The exports consist of tea, *mugá* silk thread, india-rubber, beeswax, ivory, and mustard seed; in return for which the following articles are imported—rice, opium, tobacco, salt, oil, iron, and cotton cloth. It is thought that the value of the exports, including tea, largely exceeds the value of the imports; but no trustworthy statistics are available. An annual fair has for some years been established by Government at the frontier station of Sadiyá, but the importance of this gathering is rather political than commercial.

Administration.—In 1870–71, the net revenue of Lakhimpur District amounted to £48,430, towards which the land-tax contributed £14,300, or 30 per cent.; the net expenditure was £24,856, or about half the revenue. In 1881–82, the District revenue had increased to £80,329, of which £24,463 was derived from the land. The total District expenditure was £26,463, or nearly one-third of the revenue. The land revenue has increased from £3578 in 1850, to £15,646 in 1875, and £24,463 in 1881–82. In 1880–81 there were 3 covenanted officials stationed in the District, and 9 magisterial, 3 civil, and 6 revenue courts open. For police purposes, Lakhimpur is divided into 6 police circles, with 9 outpost stations. In 1881–82, the civil and frontier police consisted of a force of 344 officers and men. These figures show 1 policeman to every 9·6 square miles or to every 526 of the population, and an average cost of £2, 8s. per square mile, or 10d. per head of population. There is no municipal police in Lakhimpur, and the *chaukídárs* or village watch of Bengal are not found anywhere in Assam proper. In 1881–82, the total number of persons in Lakhimpur District convicted of any offence, great or small, was 974, being 1

person in every 184 of the population. By far the greater proportion of the convictions were for petty offences. The District contains 1 jail and 1 sub-divisional lock-up. In 1881, the average daily number of prisoners was 51, of whom 3 were females; the labouring convicts averaged 50. These figures show 1 prisoner in jail to every 3863 of the population. The total cost amounted to £714, or £14 per prisoner; the jail manufactures yielded a net profit of £257.

Education had not made much progress in Lakhimpur till Sir G. Campbell's reforms, by which the benefit of the grant-in-aid rules was extended to the *páthsálás* or village schools. In 1856 there were only 7 inspected schools in the whole District, attended by 286 pupils. By 1870, apparently owing to some change in system, these numbers had fallen to 3 schools and 216 pupils; but in 1873, after the above-mentioned reforms had come into operation, the schools increased to 24, and the pupils to 699. In 1881–82, the number of schools had further risen to 67, with an attendance of 2314 pupils; or 1 school to every 55 square miles, and 12 pupils to every thousand of the population. The chief institution is the Government Higher School at Dibrugarh, which had an average attendance of 220 pupils in 1882.

The District is divided into 2 administrative Sub-divisions, and into 6 *thánás* or police circles. The Sub-division of North Lakhimpur, which covers the whole tract north of the Brahmaputra, and contained in 1881, 53,750 inhabitants, scattered over an estimated area of between 7500 and 8000 square miles, is considered for certain purposes to form an independent District by itself. The entire District is divided into 63 *mauzás* (circles of villages for land revenue purposes), and 82 *páik mahals* (poll-tax paying circles). Dibrugarh town is the only municipality in the District. Municipal income (1883–84), £366, or 1s. 4⅛d. per head of municipal population.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of Lakhimpur is of an exceptional character. There are only two clearly defined seasons in the year; the hot and rainy season, which lasts for four months, from the middle of June to the middle of October; and the cold and dry season, which occupies the remainder of the twelve months. The months of April and May are described as particularly cool and pleasant. The mean annual temperature is about 65° F., and the average rainfall is about 115 inches in the year. In 1883, the rainfall at Dibrugarh was 104·26 inches.

The endemic diseases are malarious fevers and their sequelæ, various kinds of cutaneous disorders, rheumatic affections, bronchocele, and suppurative inflammation of the lymphatic glands. It has been observed that phthisis, which is prevalent among some of the hill tribes on the north of the Brahmaputra, attacks Hindustání settlers, but spares the native Hindus and Europeans. Cholera, also, which has repeatedly ravaged the District in recent years, seems to pass over Europeans. In

1861, more than 15 per cent. of the total population were estimated to have been attacked by cholera, and about 10 per cent. to have died. Increased cultivation, and the clearance of jungle through the enterprise of tea planters, have favourably influenced the general health of the District; and conservancy arrangements now receive careful attention in the town of Dibrugarh. Cattle diseases of a very fatal character have made their appearance in the District several times in recent years, having been apparently imported from Bengal.

[For further information regarding Lakhimpur, see the *Statistical Account of Assam*, by W. W. Hunter, vol. i. pp. 291–420 (London, Trübner & Co., 1879); *A Descriptive Account of Assam*, by W. Robinson (1841); *Report on the Province of Assam*, by A. J. Moffat Mills (Calcutta, 1854); the *Assam Census Report* for 1881; and the several Provincial Administration and Departmental Reports from 1880 to 1884.]

Lakhimpur (or *North Lakhimpur*).—Sub-division in the north of Lakhimpur District, Assam, lying between 27° and 28° N. lat., and between 94° and 95° E. long. The administrative head-quarters are at the village of LAKHIMPUR. The Sub-division is bounded north by the Daphla and Mírí Hills, and south by the Brahmaputra. Estimated area, about 7750 square miles; number of villages, 403; occupied houses, 9409. Total population (1881) 53,750, namely, Hindus, 43,137; Muhammadans, 1795; and 'others,' 8818. North Lakhimpur is watered by the Subansiri and its tributaries, in most of which gold is found by washing. In former times caoutchouc was abundant in the jungles, but now it can only be collected beyond the frontier. The most valuable wild products are a scarlet root called *asu*, used for dyeing, and the bark of a tree called *udal*, which yields a fibre equal in strength to flax. Apart from the cultivation of rice, the only indigenous industry is the weaving of silk from the *mugá* and *eriá* worms. The *mugá* worm feeds in the open on the leaves of the *sam* tree (Artocarpus Chaplasha); the *eriá* worm requires to be carefully reared in-doors on the leaves of the castor-oil plant (Ricinus communis). It is calculated that about 328 cwts. of silk cloth are annually produced in North Lakhimpur, valued at £3036.

Tea cultivation and manufacture are largely conducted with European capital and under European supervision. The chief difficulty of the planters lies in the scarcity of labour. The country is very sparsely populated, and the natives are too well off and independent to care to work regularly on the gardens. In 1871, the value of the exports from the Sub-division was estimated at £22,000, chiefly tea, caoutchouc, silk cloth, and rice; the imports were valued at £16,000, chiefly oil, salt, and cotton cloth. The inhabitants principally belong to aboriginal and semi-Hinduized tribes — Ahams, Doms,

Chutiás, Kochs, Kalitás, Cacharís, Sarániyás, and Mírís. In 1884 the Sub-division contained 1 civil and 2 criminal courts, with a police force of 83 men.

Lakhimpur (or *North Lakhimpur*).—Village in the north of Lakhimpur District, Assam; on the Gariáján river, a tributary of the Subansiri. Lat. 27° 14′ 5″ N., long. 94° 7′ 10″ E. The head-quarters of North Lakhimpur Sub-division and a centre of local trade. Population (1872) 577; (1881) 899, namely, Hindus, 560; Muhammadans, 314; 'others,' 25. The place is the residence of an Assistant Commissioner, who is the sub-divisional officer, and an extra-Assistant Commissioner. A small military and frontier police force is also stationed here, occupying a strong masonry fort. The Gariáján is only navigable during the rainy season. The public buildings include a lock-up and a charitable dispensary.

Lakhimpur.—*Tahsíl* or Sub-division of Kheri District, Oudh, lying between 27° 47′ 15″ and 28° 29′ 30″ N. lat., and between 80° 20′ and 81° 4′ E. long. Bounded on the north and east by Dhaurahra *tahsíl;* south by Sítápur District; and west by Muhamdi *tahsíl*, and Sháhjahánpur District in the North-Western Provinces. The *tahsíl* comprises the 5 *parganás* of KHERI, SRINAGAR, BHUR, PAIL'A, and KUKRA MAILANI. Area, 1078 square miles, of which 463 are under cultivation. Population (1869) 298,338; (1881) 330,707, namely, males 175,987, and females 154,720. Hindus numbered 285,161 in 1881; Muhammadans, 45,468; 'others,' 78. Of the 666 villages comprising the *tahsíl* in 1881, 424 contained less than five hundred inhabitants each. Land revenue, £34,749. In 1884, the Sub-division contained 2 civil and 6 criminal courts, with two police circles (*thánás*), and a police force of 244 men, besides a village police of 818 *chaukídárs*.

Lakhimpur.—Chief town of Kheri District, Oudh, and head-quarters of Lakhimpur Sub-division; picturesquely situated about a mile south of the Ul river. Lat. 27° 56′ 45″ N., long. 80° 49′ 20″ E. A rising town with a population in 1869 of 1654; and in 1881 of 7526, namely, Hindus 5461, and Muhammadans 2065. Municipal income in 1883-84, £447, of which £192 was derived from taxation, and £255 from rents, fees, and fines; average incidence of taxation, 6⅛d. per head. The town contains the usual public offices and court-houses, besides a high school and dispensary maintained partly by private aid. Masonry houses are increasing, and trade is rapidly extending. Daily markets, and also special bi-weekly ones, are held in the *bázár*.

Lakhipur (*Lakshmipur*).—Village in the south of Goálpárá District, Assam. Lat. 26° 2′ 5″ N., long. 90° 20′ 50″ E.; near the north foot of the Gáro Hills. The residence of the wealthy *zamíndárs* of Mechpárá,

who maintain efficient schools for boys and girls, and contribute largely to a charitable dispensary, and other works of public utility. The *zamíndárs* own extensive *sál* forests near the village, the timber of which is annually sold at their own depôt to Bengali traders.

Lakhipur (*Lakshmipur*).—Village in the east of Cachar District, Assam, at the confluence of the Jhirí river with the Barák. A *thána* or police station, and the chief centre of trade with the State of Manipur. The *bázár* is frequented by Manipurís and other hillmen, who bring down cotton, caoutchouc, and beeswax, to barter for salt, iron tools, dried fish, and betel-nuts. The population of the Lakhipur *thána* jurisdiction amounted in 1881 to 39,742, of whom 21,276 represented the population of 28 flourishing tea-gardens, lying on both sides of the Barák. The number of Manipurís residing within the *thána* jurisdiction was returned at 7579. The village contains a post-office, and close by is a revenue court (*kachhári*) of the Mahárájá of Manipur, who owns much land in the neighbourhood.

Lakhí Sarái.—Railway station in Monghyr District, Bengal.—*See* LUCKEESERAI.

Lakhmiá.—An offshoot of the Brahmaputra, Bengal; which river it leaves at Tok, a village on the northern border of Maimansingh District. It then flows southwards and empties itself into the Dhaleswarí (lat. 23° 34′ N., long. 90° 34′ E.), about 4 miles from its junction with the Meghna in Dacca District. NARAYANGANJ, the port of Dacca District, is situated on this river. The Lakhmiá, with its high and well-wooded banks, is one of the most beautiful rivers in Eastern Bengal; it is also remarkable for the purity and coolness of its waters. For five months of the year, it is a tidal stream; but it is only fordable at Ekdála. Owing to the silting up of the Brahmaputra, the waters of the Lakhmiá are gradually decreasing.

Lakhna. — Town in Bharthna *tahsíl*, Etáwah District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 26° 38′ 55″ N., long. 79° 11′ 30″ E. Situated 2 miles south of the Etáwah and Kálpi road, 14 miles south-east of Etáwah town. Population (1872) 2857; (1881) 3551, namely, males 2081, and females 1470, chiefly Bráhmans and Márwárís. The conservancy and watch and ward of the town are provided for by the proceeds of a house-tax. Residence of the late Rájá Jaswant Singh, C.S.I., who built a temple to Kálí Kájí from the proceeds of a religious fair established by himself. Considerable trade in *ghí* and cotton. A school-house occupies the site of the former *tahsíli*, removed to Bharthna in 1863.

Lakhnádon.—The northern *tahsíl* or revenue Sub-division of Seoní District, Central Provinces. Area, 1583 square miles, with 770 villages and 28,604 occupied houses. Population (1872) 126,034; (1881) 138,716, namely, males 70,164, and females 68,552. Total

increase of population in nine years, 12,682; average density, 87·63 persons per square mile. Total adult agriculturists (male and female), 56,554, or 40·77 per cent. of the *tahsíl* population. Average area available per head of the agricultural population, 10 acres. Of the total area of 1583 square miles, 482 square miles are held revenue free. Area assessed for Government revenue, 1101 square miles, of which 434 square miles are cultivated, 372 square miles cultivable, and 295 square miles uncultivable waste. Total Government assessment, including local rates and cesses paid on land, £6922, or an average of 6d. per cultivated acre. Rental paid by cultivators, including cesses, £19,306, or an average of 1s. 4¼d. per cultivated acre. In 1883, the Sub-division contained 1 criminal and 2 civil courts, with 3 police stations (*thánás*) and 6 outposts. Total strength of regular police, 86 officers and men, besides 557 village watchmen (*chaukídárs*).

Lakhnauti.—Decayed town in Nákur *tahsíl*, Saháranpur District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 29° 46′ N., long. 77° 16′ E. Situated on the Karnál road, 26 miles south-west of Saháranpur town, and close to the high bank leading down to the Jumna (Jamuná) lowlands. Population (1872) 3998; (1881), 4312, namely, males 2250, and females 2062. Sanitation, and the watch and ward of the town, are provided for by a house-tax, which yielded £89 in 1881; average incidence of local taxation, 5d. per head. The town contains a fine specimen of an old native fort. Village school, branch post-office. This and five neighbouring villages belong to a colony of Túrkománs, in the last stages of poverty. During the last century, however, it possessed considerable strength. In 1794, Bapu Sindhia, the Maráthá governor of Saháranpur, was long engaged in reducing it; and the commandant did not surrender until reinforcements arrived under George Thomas, and a practicable breach was effected.

Lakhtar (*Thán Lakhtar*).—Native State in Káthiáwár, Province of Gujarát, Bombay Presidency, situated between 22° 49′ and 23° N. lat., and between 71° 46′ and 72° 3′ E. long. The estate consists of two distinct portions, Thán and Lakhtar, together with some outlying villages within Ahmadábád District. Population (1881) 23,155; number of villages, 41; area, 247 square miles. There are some rocky tracts in the State, but neither rivers nor hills of any size. The climate is hot and dry, but healthy, the only endemic disease being fever. Cotton and the usual grains are cultivated. Dhers and Musalmáns of the Borah class weave coarse cloth, and the potters of Thán have a name throughout Káthiáwár for the excellence of their work. Lakhtar is one of the 'third-class' Káthiáwár States, and the ruler entered into the usual engagements in 1807. The present (1884) chief is Thákur Karan Singhjí, a Hindu of the Jhála Rájput caste. He administers his State in person. Estimated gross revenue,

£7500; tribute of £735, 2s. is paid jointly to the British Government and to the Nawáb of Junágarh. The family of the chief holds no title authorizing adoption; the succession follows the rule of primogeniture. There were in 1882–83, 8 schools in the State, with a total of 384 pupils. Military force in 1882–83, 400 men. The State does not levy transit dues.

Lakhtar.—Chief town of Lakhtar State, Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency; situated on the Ahmadábád-Wadhwán branch of the Bombay, Baroda, and Central India Railway; 13 miles north-east of Wadhwán, 20 miles north of Limbdi, and 376 miles from Bombay. Lat. 22° 51′ N., long. 71° 50′ 10″ E. Population (1881) 4132. The railway station is a mile from the town, and contains a *dharmsálá* or rest-house for passengers. Post-office, school, and dispensary.

Laki.—*Tahsíl* of Bannu District, Punjab, lying between 32° 16′ and 32° 51′ N. lat., and between 70° 25′ 15″ and 71° 18′ 45″ E. long.; comprising the southern portion of the basin drained by the Kuram and the Tochi. This *tahsíl* is generally named Marwat by the people, owing to the majority of the inhabitants belonging to that clan; but it is called Laki in official reports after the head-quarters town. The greater part of the area consists of sand or sandy loam, sloping down to the Gambíla river from the hills on its southern boundary. There is no irrigation in this tract, except from small hill torrents after rain. In the less sandy parts, it is usual to leave waste the higher portions of the lands of each village, often more than half its area, and to lead the rain-water falling thereon to the lower tracts by drainage channels and embankments. Most villages have small tanks for drinking purposes, at which they also water their cattle; but these tanks are often dry for months together, necessitating water being brought from the Gambíla, or some pool in the hills often 10 to 15 miles distant. This work is done by the women with donkeys and bullocks.

Area, 1269 square miles, with 140 towns and villages, 12,801 occupied houses, and 14,504 families. Total population (1881) 75,581, namely, males 40,045, and females 35,536; proportion of males, 53 per cent. Classified according to religion, the population consisted of—Muhammadans, 70,015; Hindus, 5496; Sikhs, 69; and Christian, 1. Of the 140 towns and villages, 119 contain less than five hundred inhabitants. The average annual area under cultivation for the five years 1877–81 was 177,793 acres, the chief crops being—Wheat, 92,341 acres; gram, 47,869 acres; *bájra*, 24,539 acres; barley, 7379 acres; *joár*, 1766 acres; *moth*, 1409 acres; Indian corn, 1547 acres. Total revenue, £10,906. The administrative staff consists of a *tahsíldár* and *munsif*, presiding over 1 criminal and 2 civil courts. Number of police circles (*thánás*), 3; strength of regular police, 91 men, besides 120 village watchmen (*chaukídárs*).

Laki.—Town and municipality in Bannu District, Punjab, and head-quarters of Laki or Marwat *tahsíl.* Lat. 32° 36′ 45″ N., long. 70° 57′ E. Situated on the right bank of the Gambíla, 32 miles from Edwardesábád. The original town, by name Ihsanpur, on the opposite bank of the river, sprang up around a small fort which was built in 1844 by Fateh Khán Tewána, a revenue collector for the Sikh Government. It continued to be the capital of Marwat until 1864, when, owing to a flood in the Gambíla, and the plague of mosquitoes inseparable from its situation near the marshy apex of the Kuram and Gambíla Doab, the District officer had the public buildings removed to the sands on the higher right bank of the Gambíla. Here were three villages, Mínakhel, Khoedádkhel, and Sayyidkhel. The people of Ihsanpur settled in them, and helped to mould the three villages into the one town of Laki. Population (1881) 4068, namely, Muhammadans, 2906; Hindus, 1146; and Sikhs, 16. Number of occupied houses, 727. Laki is now a thriving little town, with a good *bázár*, *tahsíli*, police station, charitable dispensary, *dák* bungalow, *sarái*, school-house, post-office. Considerable trade in grain and other country produce; large exports of food-stuffs down the Indus to Dera Ismáil Khán, Dera Ghází Khán, and Sukkur (Sakhar). Municipal revenue in 1875–76, £146; in 1883–84, £226, or 1s. 1d. per head of municipal population.

Laki.—Mountain range and village in Karáchi (Kurrachee) District, Sind, Bombay Presidency.—*See* LAKHI.

Laki.—Town in Shikárpur District, Sind, Bombay Presidency.—*See* LAKHI.

Lakshmantirtha.—Tributary of the Káveri (Cauvery), in Southern India; rises at the village of Kurchi in the Brahmagiri Hills in the Kiggat-nád *táluk* of Coorg, and flows north-east into Mysore State, through the District of Mysore, to join the Káveri at Ságarkatte. It is a perennial stream, and much used for irrigation in Mysore, being crossed by 7 dams, which give water to channels 126 miles in length, yielding a revenue of £3381. The Hanagod dam alone takes off 335 cubic feet of water per second, and irrigates 13,400 acres. The Lakshmantirtha in its descent over an almost perpendicular wall of the Brahmagiri Hills forms a celebrated cataract, which is invested with sin-cleansing virtue, and is visited in February by thousands of devotees. The way to the bathing-place is romantic, with steep hills to the right, and the winding stream to the left. 'Every few steps a beggar is encountered, exhibiting his deformities or sores. Here lies a fanatic, as if dead, with a wooden nail through his cheeks; there a boy with a lancet through his outstretched tongue, and a smoking *chatti* on his stomach; here another man with a long knife across his throat, and a horrible corpse-like appearance.'

Lakshmeswar.—Town in Miráj State, South Maráthá Agency, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 15° 7′ 10″ N., long. 75° 30′ 40″ E. Population (1881) 10,274, namely, 5011 males and 5263 females, of whom 8530 are Hindus, 1597 Muhammadans, and 147 Jains.

Lakshmipur. — *Ghát* or pass in Vizagapatam District, Madras Presidency, leading from the low country *viâ* Párvatipur into Jaipur (Jeypore); height about 3000 feet above sea-level. Lat. 19° 6′ N., long. 83° 20′ E.

Lakshmipur.—Villages in Goálpárá and Cachar Districts, Assam. —*See* LAKHIPUR.

Laktrái. — Range in the State of Hill Tipperah, Bengal.—*See* LANGTARAI.

Lakvalli.—*Táluk* or Sub-division of Kadúr District, Mysore State. Area, 504 square miles. Population (1881) 23,701, namely, 12,786 males and 10,915 females, inhabiting 799 villages. Hindus numbered 21,503; Muhammadans, 2072; Christians, 125; and 'others,' 1. The south of the *táluk* is occupied by the Chandra Drona or Baba Budan Mountains. The Baba Budan was the first site of coffee cultivation in Southern India; and the slopes of the entire range, as well as south of the forest-bound valley of Jagar, are occupied by coffee-gardens, both European and native. Throughout the west, up to Lakvalli village, forests stretch along both sides of the Bhadra river, containing some of the most valuable teak timber of the State. Areca-nut gardens are numerous in the north-west of the *táluk*; eastward, rice is the principal crop. Of the 540 square miles, 358 are cultivated, 78 cultivable, and 204 uncultivable waste.

Lakvalli.—Village in Kadúr District, Mysore State. Lat. 13° 42′ 40″ N., long. 75° 41′ 40″ E. Population (1881) 1211. Has given its name to a *táluk* with head-quarters at Yedehalli, situated close to the site of Ratnapuri, the ancient capital of Wajra Mukuta Raya.

Lálatpur.—District, *tahsíl*, and town, North-Western Provinces.—*See* LALITPUR.

Lálbágh.—Sub-division of Murshidábád District (called also the City of Murshidábád Sub-division), Bengal, lying between 24° 6′ 45″ and 24° 23′ N. lat., and between 88° 3′ 15″ and 88° 32′ 45″ E. long. Area, 250 square miles, with 600 towns and villages, and 33,559 occupied houses. Population of the Sub-division on its present area (1872) 154,512; (1881) 147,007, namely, males 70,407, and females 76,600. Total decrease in nine years, 7505, or 4·86 per cent. of the population. Classified according to religion, Hindus number 74,382; Muhammadans, 71,506; Jains, 644; Christians, 54; Santáls, 177; other aborigines, 244. Average number of persons per square mile, 588; villages per square mile, 2·4; persons per village, 297; houses per square mile, 144; inmates per house, 4·4. This Sub-division

comprises the 6 police circles (*thánás*) of Mánullábázár, Sháhnagar, Bhágwangola, Ságardighi, Mohimapur, and Asanpur, the three latter being of minor importance and ranking merely as outposts. In 1884 the Sub-division contained 1 civil and 1 criminal court; strength of regular police, 227 men; village watchmen (*chaukidárs*), 339.

Lál Bakyá.—Tributary of the Bághmati river in Tirhut, Bengal. It joins the main stream near Adauri. Flat-bottomed boats can get up as far as Murpá in the rains.

Lál-darwáza ('*Red Door*').—Mountain pass across the Siwálik range, between the Districts of Dehra Dún and Saháranpur, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 30° 13′ N., long. 77° 58′ E.; elevation above sea, 2935 feet.

Lálganj.—Important river mart on the east bank of the Gandak in the Hájípur Sub-division of Muzaffarpur District, Bengal; 12 miles north-west of Hájípur town. Lat. 25° 51′ 45″ N., long. 85° 12′ 50″ E. The *bázár* lies on the low land adjoining the river, but is protected from inundation by the Gandak embankments. Population (1872) 12,338; (1881) 16,431, namely, males 7631, and females 8800. Classified according to religion, Hindus numbered 14,533; and Muhammadans, 1898. Municipal income in 1882–83, £301; average incidence of taxation, 3⅝d. per head. The importance of Lálganj as a trading centre led to its being selected in 1875 as a point for the registration of river traffic; the total river-borne trade for the first quarter of that year was £36,935. A different system of trade registration has since been introduced, and the Lálganj registration station abolished. Principal exports—hides, oil-seeds, saltpetre; imports—food-grains (chiefly rice), salt, and piece-goods. The shipping *ghát* lies a mile to the south of the town, and is called Basanta. Roads to Sáhibganj, Muzaffarpur, and Hájípur. Police station, several schools, post-office.

Lálganj.—Formerly a *tahsíl* or Sub-division of Rái Bareli District, Oudh, which since 1876 has been known as the Dálmau *tahsíl* from the name of the head-quarters town.—*See* DALMAU.

Lálganj.—Town in Dálmau *tahsíl*, Rái Bareli District, Oudh; situated about 10 miles south-west of Dálmau, on the road from Bareli to Bhitári Ghát in Fatehpur District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 26° 9′ 50″ N., long. 81° 0′ 49″ E. A flourishing market town, with a population (1869) of 2602; (1882) 2568, namely, Hindus, 2334; and Muhammadans, 234. Bi-weekly market for the sale of agricultural produce. Hindu *thákurdwára* dedicated to Kishanjí or Krishna.

Lálguli Falls.—Rapids and cascade 8 miles north of Yellápur on the Kálinadi, Yellápur Sub-division, North Kánara District, Bombay Presidency. The fall of water is between 200 and 300 feet. Near the falls is a fort from which, according to local tradition, the Gonda chiefs used to throw their prisoners into the gorge beneath.

Láliád.—Petty State in the Jháláwár division, or *piánt*, of Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency; consisting of 1 village, with 2 proprietors. Area, 4 square miles. Population (1881) 783. Estimated revenue (1881), £285, of which £36, 4s. is paid as tribute to the British Government. The estate is situated about 3 miles north-east of Chuda station, on the Bhaunagar-Gondal Railway.

Laling.—Fort in Khándesh District, Bombay Presidency. — *See* DHULIA.

Lálitpur.—British District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of the North-Western Provinces, lying between 24° 9′ 30″ and 25° 14′ N. lat., and between 78° 12′ 20″ and 79° 2′ 15″ E. long. Area, 1947 square miles. Population in 1881, 249,088 persons. Lálitpur is the southern District of the Jhánsi Division. It is bounded on the north and west by the river Betwá; on the south-west by the river Náráyan; on the south by the Vindhyachal Gháts and Ságar (Saugor) District of the Central Provinces; on the south-east and east by Orchha State and the river Dhasán; and on the east and north-east by the river Jamuni. The administrative head-quarters are at LALITPUR town.

Physical Aspects.—The District of Lálitpur forms a portion of the hill country of Bundelkhand. Its general appearance is that of an undulating plain, bounded on the south by the Vindhyan range, and sloping gradually northwards, till it descends by a series of low, thickly-wooded ridges into the valleys of the Betwá and the Jamuní, whose streams unite to form its northern limit. In the two hilly tracts to the north and south, the soil consists of a poor red gravel, the detritus of the underlying rocks; but on the central table-land, and in isolated valleys elsewhere, there are wide patches of black alluvial soil, known here as *motí*, but elsewhere as *már*. The plain has a general elevation of about 1500 feet above the level of the sea, and is broken by numerous detached hills and peaks, most of which are mere bosses of crystalline rock, overgrown with thick jungle. To the north, these hills run together, forming low wooded ranges, which finally dip into the deep valley of the Betwá.

The whole District is traversed or surrounded by considerable rivers, which take their rise in the Vindhyan chain and flow in a general northerly direction to join the main channel of the Jumna (Jamuná). The principal of these rivers are the Betwá, which marks the western and north-western boundary; the Dhasán on the south-eastern boundary; and the Jamní, which after intersecting the Mahroni *tahsíl* forms the eastern and north-eastern boundary, till it unites with the Betwá at the northern apex of the District. These rivers, however, are of no practical value either for purposes of navigation or irrigation. Lálitpur is also minutely intersected by a network of smaller streams, which drain off the surface water through converging

ravines with excessive rapidity, and so contribute to impoverish the soil; while, in times of heavy rain, they pour their swollen torrents too suddenly into the larger channels, and carry away before them roads, banks, and bridges, causing a stoppage of communication, and frequently endangering human life.

Several artificial lakes and tanks have been constructed in past times, the largest being Tálbehat, among the northern hills, which forms a fine sheet of water covering an area of upwards of 453 acres. Similar old tanks exist at Dhaurí Ságar, Dudhí, Bar, and other places. During the famine of 1868–69, the excavation of tanks and the construction of embankments were undertaken as relief works in several villages. Owing to the nature of the soil, however, the area susceptible of profitable irrigation is small, and the cultivators are unwilling to pay a sufficiently high water-rate to yield a moderate return for the heavy outlay.

There is little cultivation in the District, and that of a poor class, although with the recent increase of population a considerable improvement is observable in this respect. A very large proportion (174,740 acres) of the assessed area is covered with forest jungle. Of these, 90,694 acres were demarcated as Government forest at the time of the land settlement, while 10,900 acres of waste land, in which no proprietary rights existed, have been marked off and reserved. Nomadic (*dahya*) cultivation so destructive to forests is prohibited, and all villages within the demarcated tracts have been removed elsewhere. Besides timber trees, there is an abundant growth of bamboos. Grass, however, forms the most important jungle product. Large herds of cattle are sent every year to graze in the jungles of the Vindhya hills, and in ordinary years the supply of grass exceeds the demand. In years of drought (as in 1868–69), when the grass fails in the plains, these high grass lands prove of inestimable value, and cattle are sent in large numbers from considerable distances to graze in the Bálábahat and Lakhanjir jungles. The other forest products are *mahuá* and *chironji* fruit, lac, honey, wax, gums, and various esculent roots, the names of which are unknown, but which form part of the food of the jungle tribe of Sahariyás.

Tigers, leopards, bears, hyænas, wolves, wild dogs, wild pigs, *sambhár*, *chitál* deer, antelope, *chausingha*, and ravine deer are all found in the District. One of the great obstacles to the extension and improvement of cultivation is the extensive damage done to the crops by wild animals, especially by wild pigs, which are so abundant that, without strong thorny hedges around every field, it is almost useless to attempt cultivation at any distance from the village site. During the year 1883, the number of registered deaths caused by wild beasts or snake-bite was 89. The fish most commonly found in the

rivers of the District are the *rohu*, *máhsir*, *chilwa*, *bám*, *tengra*, *parhán*, *gauriya*, *sauri*, and *mirgal*.

History.—The earliest inhabitants of Lálitpur whom tradition commemorates were the aboriginal tribe of Gonds, traces of whom still exist in the temples which crown the peaks of the Vindhyan range; while a remnant of the people themselves is to be found in a few scattered villages upon its slopes. After the Aryan immigration, they appear to have adopted a form of the Hindu religion; and the high civilization which they once attained is attested both by their architectural works and their splendid irrigation reservoirs. They were succeeded by the Chandel princes of Máhoba, whose history has been briefly related in connection with the Districts of BANDA and HAMIRPUR. After the fall of the Chandels in the end of the 12th century, the country became subject to several petty princes, independent of the Muhammadans at Delhi, till the irruption of the Bundelas in the 14th century. Those warlike southern adventurers established themselves first in the District of JHANSI, and gradually spread their authority over the whole region which still bears their name.

The modern District of Lálitpur formed part of the Bundela State of Chánderi, whose Rájás were descendants of the great chieftain Rudra Pratáp. Nine princes of his line reigned in Chanderi from 1602 to 1788, with little interference from the Delhi court, until, in the time of Rám Chand the ninth, the Maráthás, whose interposition in the affairs of Bundelkhand has been narrated in the article on Bánda, first gained a footing in the principality during the absence of the Rájá on a pilgrimage to Ajodhyá. Their authority, however, was here much less durable than elsewhere, and the son of Rám Chand was permitted to succeed to the greater portion of his father's dominions in 1800. Within two years, this prince was murdered at the instigation of a vassal, and his brother, Múr Pahlád, was placed upon the throne. He proved a dissolute and inefficient ruler, totally unable to curb his vassal Thákurs, who, freebooters by training and hereditary disposition, made constant plundering expeditions into the territories of neighbouring princes, until at last, in 1811, their incursions on the villages of Gwalior provoked Sindhia to measures of retaliation. The Mahárájá sent an army to capture Chanderi, under his partisan leader, Colonel Jean Baptiste; on whose approach, after capturing in succession the forts of Kotra, Bánsi, Rájwára, and Lálitpur, Múr Pahlád fled precipitately to Jhánsi, leaving the defence of his capital to his generals. Despite a determined resistance, Chanderi was captured after a siege of several weeks through the treachery of one of the Chanderi Thákurs; and Tálbehat soon afterwards surrendered. Sindhia then assumed the government, and appointed Colonel Baptiste as its administrator. The

jagírs were restored to their former owners, 31 villages being assigned for the support of Rájá Múr Pahlád.

For fifteen years this arrangement worked smoothly; but in 1829, the native Bundela turbulence showed itself once more in an insurrection, headed by the former Rájá. Colonel Baptiste again returned; and an agreement was entered into by which the Chanderi State was divided, one-third being retained by Múr Pahlád, and two-thirds falling to the share of Sindhia. Even in these restricted dominions, Múr Pahlád continued to have frequent quarrels with his subordinate chieftains until his death in 1842. He was succeeded by his son, Mardan Singh. Two years later, after the battle of Mahárájpur, Sindhia ceded to the British Government all his share of the Chanderi State, as a guarantee for the maintenance of the Gwalior Contingent.

The territory so acquired was formed into a District, under the stipulation that the sovereignty of the Mahárájá and the rights of the inhabitants should be respected. This arrangement continued in force until the outbreak of the Mutiny. Murdan Singh, known as the Rájá of Bánpur, had for some time considered himself aggrieved by the withholding of certain honours; and by his advice, the Bundela chiefs rose in rebellion in June 1857. The Rájá himself occupied the passes to the south, and entered into communication with the mutineers at Jhánsi. On the 12th of June, the 6th Gwalior Regiment mutinied, and its officers were forced to fly. Quarrels of the usual type then broke out between the mutineers and the Rájá of Bánpur; but after a short time, the latter succeeded in making his authority good, and many native officials in the Government service took posts under him. The Rájá asserted his complete independence, raised revenues in his own name, extorted money from the trading classes, plundered all who were supposed to favour the British Government, and established a cannon factory at Bánpur. He even extended his rule into the northern portions of Ságar (Saugor) District, which he held until the arrival of Sir Hugh Rose's force in January 1858, when, on being defeated at Banawadhia, he withdrew into Chanderi territory. On the 3rd of March 1858, the British army succeeded in forcing the passes leading into the plains of Lálitpur, and the Rájá fell back towards Bánpur and Tálbahat. The District was then partially pacified; but before the work could be completed, the revolt at Gwalior compelled the withdrawal of our troops, and the whole Chanderi country fell once more into the hands of the rebels. It was not till October 1858 that Lálitpur was finally recovered, and even then only after a desperate resistance.

Throughout the whole of this troubled period, it is noticeable that the Bundela Thákurs themselves were in the forefront of disaffection, revolting long before the mutiny of the troops at Lálitpur, and

remaining hostile after the main centres of rebellion had been effectually reduced. They are in fact a body of half-savage chieftains, accustomed for centuries to a state of perpetual feud, and little adapted for the regular industrial life which the Government is endeavouring to render possible. Since the Mutiny, Lálitpur has been regularly organized as a British District, and has been free from any of those greater social disturbances which marked its early history. It has, however, been subject to the natural calamities of famine and pestilence, which have combined with the ravages of the Mutiny to impoverish still further its sterile soil, and to lessen by death or emigration its scanty population.

Population.—Lálitpur exhibits in the highest degree that decrease of inhabitants noticeable throughout the whole of Bundelkhand after the famine of 1868–69. The Census of 1865 gave the total population as 248,146. At the Census of 1872, the numbers had fallen to 212,661, showing a loss of 35,485 persons, or 14·31 per cent., in seven years. This large depopulation must be attributed partly to the deaths by starvation and disease during the famine of 1868–69, but partly, also, to the exodus of labourers which then took place to more favoured tracts. Since 1872 the District has been free from serious calamity; and an increasing population, with extended cultivation, marks a considerable advancement in the former wretched condition of the people. The Census of 1881 returned the population at 249,088, or an increase of 36,427 (17·1 per cent.), showing that the people have now recovered from the effects of the calamities of 1868–69. There were 750 villages in the District in 1865, 646 in 1872, and 670 in 1881.

The results of the Census of 1881 may be briefly summarized as follows:—Area of District, 1947·4 square miles; 670 inhabited and 79 uninhabited villages, and 34,181 occupied houses or enclosures. Total population, 249,088, namely, males 129,799, and females 119,289; proportion of males, 52·1 per cent. Children under 15 years of age —males 51,333, and females 45,304; total children, 96,637, or 38·8 per cent. of population. Adults, males 78,466, and females 73,985; total adults 152,451, or 61·2 per cent. Density of population, 128 persons per square mile; towns and villages per square mile, ·34; persons per village, 371; houses per square mile, 17·5; persons per house, 7·2. With regard to religious divisions, Lálitpur District, like the remainder of Bundelkhand, is essentially Hindu; as many as 233,636, or 93·79 per cent. of the inhabitants, professing some form of Hinduism; while the Musalmáns number only 5368, or 2·11 per cent. The remainder of the population consists of—Jains, 10,029, or 4·10 per cent.; Sikhs, 30; and Christians, 25.

Of the superior classes of Hindus, the Bráhmans number 22,074 persons, and form a large proportion of the cultivators. The Rájputs or

Thákurs number 14,807, amongst whom the Jajháriyas are the most numerous clan; but the Bundelas, who still retain much of their old supremacy, are socially and politically the most important. They were formerly a turbulent and aggressive race, averse to labour, and living by plunder. Under British rule, they have settled down into a peaceful landholding class, and now exist as a sort of feudal nobility. Their estates have much improved, and are not now heavily mortgaged to money-lenders as was formerly the case. The trading classes, or Baniyás, including the Jains, who formerly represented the Vaisya or third class in the ancient fourfold Hindu social organization, number 12,233 souls, and they are the most active and money-making class in the District. The purely Hindu Baniyás number 2204. The Káyasths or writer class, who mostly fill the ranks of the subordinate Government service, and are also landholders, clerks, etc., number 2449.

The great body of the population belongs to the clans enumerated in the Census returns as 'other castes.' Of these there are 192,102. The principal of these 'Súdrá' or low castes, arranged in numerical order, and not according to social rank, are as follow:—Chamárs, leather-workers and labourers, 29,766; Lodhís, landholders and cultivators, 26,122; Kachhís, gardeners, cultivators, and field labourers, 24,045; Ahírs, cattle-breeders, milk-sellers, and cultivators, 23,978; Kahárs, palanquin-bearers, water-carriers, and fishermen, 6256; Telís, oil-makers, 6186; Kúrmís, landholders and cultivators, 6091; Náis, barbers, 6008; Gadariás, sheep and goat breeders and wool-spinners, 5237. The other Hindu castes are all under 5000 in number.

The aboriginal races are represented by a few Gonds in the southern *parganás*, and about 11,000 Sahāriyas, scattered all over the District in the thickly wooded tracts. The latter are a very degraded type of humanity, subsisting till lately on the produce of the jungle, and by theft, and popularly described as more like monkeys than men. They have, however, much improved in circumstances of late years. They profess a low form of Hinduism, and are returned as Hindus in the Census Report, and in the religious classification given above. The Muhammadans are, almost without exception, Sunnís by religion, but as a class they possess neither wealth nor influence. The Christian population consists of 18 Europeans, 1 Eurasian, and 6 natives.

Town and Rural Population.—Only two towns contain a population exceeding five thousand inhabitants, namely LALITPUR (10,684) and TALBAHAT (5293), making a total urban population of 15,977, or a fraction less than 6½ per cent. of the population of the District. The villages are mostly very small, and are thinly scattered over the plain. Very many villages were entirely deserted during the great famine of 1868–69; and although the population has recovered itself to the number at which it stood prior to that calamity, there were

still 79 villages uninhabited in 1881. The Census Report classifies the 670 inhabited villages as follows:—303 with less than two hundred inhabitants, 229 from two to five hundred, 97 from five hundred to a thousand, 32 from one to two thousand, 6 from two to three thousand, 1 from three to five thousand, and 2 with upwards of five thousand inhabitants. In the villages, the houses of the *lambardárs* (or headmen) stand out conspicuously. They are built of small burnt bricks, set in mud or lime, with an upper storey and a loopholed wall. The villagers' huts are generally low mud-huts roofed with tiles or thatch, and plastered with cow-dung; although of late years, with the returning prosperity of the country, strongly-built slate and stone houses have become common. As a rule, the people are now comfortably clothed and shod, and well fed. Even the wild Sahâriyas are able to wear decent clothing and shoes. The condition of field labourers is one of comfort, and the demand for labour has increased to such an extent that farm labourers by means of a strike have been able to enforce their demand for a payment in kind, of one-fifth and sometimes even one-fourth of a crop of *joár*.

One peculiarity of the District is the number of old forts met with in every part of the country. These are, for the most part, in ruins; those of most importance near towns and villages were dismantled by Sir Hugh Rose's force in 1858. Many of these were the residences of robber Thákurs, whose practice of levying black-mail on all passers-by has only been restrained since the introduction of British rule. Numerous remains of old temples, the work of the Gonds, are scattered over the south of the District, especially in the neighbourhood of the Vindhyan hills, where there is an unlimited supply of good building stone. Modern Jain temples, erected as an act of piety by the Jain dealers and money-lenders, are common.

Classified according to occupation, the Census Report returned the male population under the following six main headings:—(1) Professional, including all Government servants, and the learned professions, 2478; (2) domestic and menial servants, 102; (3) commercial, including bankers, traders, carriers, etc., 2744; (4) agricultural, including gardeners, herdsmen, and shepherds, 57,911; (5) manufacturers and artisans, 17,783; (6) indefinite and non-productive (comprising general labourers 5083, male children, etc.), 48,781.

Agriculture.—Out of a total area amounting to 1947 square miles, only 366 square miles (or less than one-fifth) were under tillage in 1872. By 1883–84, the area under cultivation had increased to 401·8 square miles. The principal crops are wheat, gram, barley, *joár*, the coarser sorts of millet, pulses of various kinds, and other inferior food-grains, enumerated below. *Joár* is now the staple crop of the District, and its production has enormously increased of late years. In 1877,

during a local famine in Bhind Bhadáwar in Gwalior State, thousands of the inhabitants passed through this District on their way to Málwá, purchasing grain by the way. On their return to their own homes, they apparently reported favourably on the Lálitpur *joár*, for since then many carts come here every year for the grain. To keep pace with the demand, the area under this crop is steadily increasing, and even in Districts north of Lálitpur a large area is now sown with *joár* where it was never grown prior to 1877.

Cotton is grown in small quantities sufficient to supply local wants; but there is no surplus for export. Every village has a few small fields of tobacco, but vegetables are rarely cultivated, and garden produce is very scanty. Betel gardens occupy a small area; the produce of the Páli gardens is renowned, and it forms a considerable item of export. Two varieties of wheat (*gehan*) are grown; one sort is grown in black alluvial soil known as *motí* with irrigation; and a smaller variety (*pisiyá*) is grown in light irrigated soil. Sugar-cane of three varieties is grown, but in very small quantities, and its cultivation is principally confined to *parganá* Bánpur.

The crops are almost entirely dependent upon the rainfall, except on the soil known as *motí*. Accordingly, the *rabí* or spring harvest, locally called *unhárí*, is very small, amounting to only 24½ per cent. of the total out-turn; while the *kharíf* or autumn harvest, locally called *sayárí*, yields 75½ per cent. The total area under *kharíf* crops in 1883, was 245,202 acres, and *rabí*, 79,102 acres; grand total, 324,304 acres, or 505·5 square miles. This, however, includes lands bearing two crops in the year, the area of which is counted twice over. The acreage under the principal crops in 1883 was returned as follows: —*Kharíf*—*joár* (Sorghum vulgare), 78,109 acres; maize, 9644; rice, 10,802; *úrd* or *múng* (Phaseolus mungo), 7744; *kodon* (Paspalum scrobiculatum), 37,616; *rálí* (Panicum miliaceum), 22,600; *kutki*, (Panicum miliare), 16,551; *phíkar*, 8129; *sawán* (Panicum frumentaceum), 5769; cotton, 2846; and *al* dye, 42,408 acres. *Rabí*—wheat, 38,655 acres; wheat, mixed with barley or gram, 15,279; gram, 20,322; and *masuri* (Ervum lens), 2062 acres.

Irrigation is little practised, not more than one-tenth of the cultivated area being artificially watered. Irrigation is carried on by means of wells fitted with the Persian wheel; by means of small canoes hollowed out of trunks of trees, weighted at one end, and worked by men at the other; also from tanks chiefly in the north of the District. The total irrigated area was returned at 22,222 acres in 1867, and 31,105 acres in 1883. On the red soil of the hilly tract no cold-weather crops can be grown at all without artificial water-supply; yet the people are very slow to avail themselves even of existing advantages. Rotation of crops is almost unknown, but land lies

fallow for long periods, except where the rich black *motí* soil prevails. Manuring is generally practised in the case of all the more important products. Lálitpur has not escaped the common plague of *káns* grass, which throughout all Bundelkhand has thrown many villages out of cultivation.

Ten acres form the average farm held with rights of occupancy, and seven acres the ordinary holding of a tenant-at-will. The latter, who form the most numerous class, are almost without exception in debt to the village banker. The total adult agricultural population (male and female) was returned by the Census of 1881 at 98,360, consisting of 2793 landholders, 75,346 cultivators, and 20,221 agricultural labourers and others. The total population, however, dependent on the soil was 165,197, or 66·32 per cent. of the entire inhabitants of the District. Of the total area of Lálitpur, 1947 square miles, 403 square miles are held revenue free, leaving 1544 square miles assessed for Government revenue. Of the assessed area, 402 square miles are returned as under cultivation, 835 square miles as cultivable but not under tillage, and 307 square miles as uncultivable waste. Total Government assessment, including local rates and cesses, £17,557, or an average of 1s. 4d. per cultivated acre. Total rental, including rates and cesses (expressed in a money value), paid by the cultivators, £34,029, or an average of 2s. 3½d. per cultivated acre.

Rents are usually fixed in proportion to the crops. The average rates (expressed in money) are—for irrigated black soil, on two-crop lands, 8s.—on one-crop lands, 6s.; for irrigated red soil on two-crop lands, 6s.—on one-crop lands, 5s.; for unirrigated soil, black, 3s. 6d.—mixed, 2s. 6d.—red, 1s. 3d. The labourers belong to all castes, and are generally paid in grain. Non-agricultural wages are reported as follows:—Coolies, 1½d. to 3d. per diem:—smiths, carpenters, masons, tailors, etc.—first-class, 6d.; second-class, 4½d. Lálitpur has not participated in the general rise of wages which has taken place throughout the greater part of Bundelkhand during the last twenty years, these rates being the same as those current in 1858; the exception is probably owing to the remoteness of the District, which has been little affected by the development of the railway system. Prices, however, have nearly doubled during the same period. The following were the average current rates of food-grains in 1883:—Common rice, 15 *sers* per rupee, or 7s. 6d. per cwt.; wheat, 20½ *sers* per rupee, or 5s. 5d. per cwt.; gram and *joár*, 36 *sers* per rupee, or 3s. 1d. per cwt.; *bájra*, 28 *sers* per rupee, or 4s. per cwt.

Natural Calamities.—Lálitpur is subject to loss of crops from blight, hailstorms, and the ravages of locusts; but its principal enemy is drought, to which the great famine of 1868–69 was mainly due. The

kharíf or autumn crop of 1868 failed almost entirely, through long-continued want of rain; and the *rabí* or spring harvest of 1869 produced only half its usual amount. Relief measures were commenced in August 1868; and during the next thirteen months an average number of 5599 persons were daily assisted with work, while 2781 persons received gratuitous relief at poorhouses. In February 1869, the total daily average of persons relieved was over 20,000. The maximum price of wheat and gram during the dearth was 7 *sers* the rupee, or about 16s. per cwt. Epidemics, as usual, followed in the wake of famine; cholera broke out in June 1869, and raged amongst the debilitated and starving people during the rainy season. Every effort was made to prevent actual starvation; yet 500 deaths were reported as due to that cause; and there can be little doubt that these figures do not by any means represent the real numbers. The total loss of inhabitants by death and emigration was enormous. As much as 76 per cent. of the people relieved were women and children, the majority of whom belonged to families whose male members had deserted them and gone off elsewhere as soon as the failure of the crops was generally anticipated. Even after the famine abated, distress continued for a considerable period, as there were not enough cultivators left to till the ground, and 41 per cent. of the cattle had been lost, 95,543 head out of a total stock amounting to 233,047 having died from starvation or other causes. Government endeavoured to alleviate these calamities by large advances for the purpose of buying seed and beasts; but much of the money so granted was really spent upon food to supply existing necessities, and a considerable period elapsed before the land was restored to cultivation. The communications are insufficient to avert actual famine, and many portions of the District are in danger of isolation from floods. On the whole, in all seasons of scarcity the condition of Lálitpur must be considered specially critical.

Commerce and Trade.—Until recently the foodstuffs raised in Lálitpur were only just sufficient even in favourable seasons to satisfy the home consumption, and there was but little export trade; while in times of scarcity it became necessary to import considerable quantities of grain. The regular commerce was very small; the only out-going products being betel-leaves, clarified butter (*ghí*), lac, honey, wax, and forest produce; and the imported articles being chiefly salt, grain, sugar, cloth, and tobacco. As explained, however, on a previous page, a great extension of *joár* cultivation has taken place since 1877, and large exports of this grain take place every year, principally into Gwalior territory. The manufactures are unimportant, and belong entirely to the domestic type. The District is still remote from all portions of the railway system. There is one good through road, metalled throughout between Jhánsi and Ságar (Saugor), known as the Bundelkhand road, having a length of

57 miles within this District. The other roads are unmetalled, and in many cases unbridged, so that communications are often rendered impossible after heavy rains. The total length of roads in the District in 1883 was 460 miles. There are no railroads or navigable rivers. The District does not contain any noticeable institution, and there are no newspapers or printing-presses.

Administration.—In 1860-61, the total revenue amounted to £31,031, of which £14,513, or nearly one-half, was contributed by the land-tax. The expenditure at the same date was £15,808. By 1870-71 the total receipts had increased to £34,677, of which £14,881 was made up by land revenue; while the expenditure had decreased to £10,321, or less than one-third of the receipts. The retrenchment was mainly effected in the items of Justice and Police. In 1881-82 the total receipts amounted to £40,370, of which £15,047 was made up by land revenue. The expenditure for the same year was £19,055. Lálitpur suffered, like other neighbouring Districts, from over-assessment during the native period; and the rates continued high before the Mutiny; but at present a much lighter settlement has been introduced, which will remain in force till 1888.

Lálitpur District is administered, on the non-regulation system, by a Deputy Commissioner, 1 Assistant, and 1 extra-Assistant Commissioner, and 2 *tahsíldárs*. In 1883 they presided over 5 magisterial and 5 civil courts. There are 18 police stations, and the regular District and town police force numbered 421 men, maintained at a cost of £4717, almost entirely from imperial funds. Besides these, the District contains 484 village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), or 1 to every 514 inhabitants; annual cost of maintenance, £1750. The total machinery for the protection of person and property accordingly consists of 905 men, giving 1 man to every 2·15 square miles and to every 275 of the population. The number of convictions for all offences in 1883 amounted to 529, or 1 in every 470 inhabitants. The Saháriyas, a class of professional thieves recruited from various low castes, well known to the police throughout India, are numerous in the District, and cause much trouble. These people originally came from the country in the neighbourhood of Delhi, and settled down in Bundelkhand, Gwalior State, and the neighbouring Districts of the Central Provinces many years ago. They are a wandering gang of persons associated for the pupose of committing thefts, which they carry out at a distance from their homes, notably in Gujarát (Guzerát) and the Bombay Districts. In 1883 the jail contained a daily average of 75 inmates, the total number of admissions during the year being 369.

Education during the last few years has not only failed to make any progress in Lálitpur, but has retrograded. In 1860 there were 27 inspected schools, attended by 677 pupils, and maintained at

a cost of £182; by 1870 the number of schools had risen to 39, and that of pupils to 1254, while £613 was expended on instruction. In 1883–84, however, the number of State-inspected schools was returned at only 28, attended by 975 pupils, the cost of State education being £516. This is exclusive of uninspected and unaided schools; but the Census of 1881 returned only 1247 boys and 15 girls as under instruction, besides 5563 males and 43 females able to read and write, but not under instruction.

The District is divided into 2 *tahsíls* and 7 *parganás*. The number of revenue-paying estates in 1871 was 641, owned by 4946 registered proprietors or coparceners, and paying a revenue of £14,881; each estate accordingly bore an average burden of £21, 18s., and each coparcener contributed an average share of £2, 16s. Sub-division of property has slightly increased of late years, and in 1881–82 there were 654 separate estates, owned by 5295 proprietors and coparceners; each estate paying an average of £22, 10s., and each individual proprietor an average of £2, 9s. 6d. The District contains only 1 municipality, Lálitpur town. In 1883–84, its total income amounted to £1114, and its expenditure to £871. The incidence of municipal taxation was at the rate of 1s. 7¼d. per head of population.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of Lálitpur is distinguished by a continuous heat, though the extremes of temperature are not so marked as in the Upper Provinces, or even in neighbouring Districts, and the cold weather is bracing. The annual rainfall averages 38·16 inches; in 1867–68 it rose as high as 59·8 inches, while in the disastrous season of 1868–69 it fell to 13·0 inches. In 1881 the rainfall was 37·58 inches, or 0·58 of an inch below the average. No thermometrical returns are available. The total number of deaths reported in 1883 amounted to 6825, or 27·43 to every 1000 inhabitants, of which one-fourth (1553) were assigned to fever. Snake-bites and the attacks of wild animals are set down as causing 89 deaths in 1883. The average death-rate for the previous five years is returned as 34·55 per thousand. Cattle-disease occurs yearly in a mild form; and rinderpest, combined with foot-and-mouth disease, appeared as an epidemic in 1871. The natives consider it inevitable, and take no measures for its suppression.

[For further information regarding Lálitpur, see the *Gazetteer of the North-Western Provinces*, by Mr. E. T. Atkinson, C.S., vol. i. pp. 304–360 (Government Press, Allahábád, 1874); the *Settlement Report of Lálitpur District*, by Colonel J. Davidson (1873); the *Census Report of the North-Western Provinces and Oudh for* 1881; and the several Provincial Administration and Departmental Reports from 1880 to 1884.]

Lálitpur.—Western *tahsíl* of Lálitpur District, North-Western Provinces, consisting of the *parganás* of Lálitpur, Bánsi, Tálbehat, and

Bálábehat. Area, 1059 square miles, of which only 234 square miles were cultivated in 1881. Population (1872) 118,997; (1881) 138,516, namely, males 72,606, and females 65,910. Total increase of population during the nine years, 19,519, or 16·4 per cent. Classified according to religion, there were in 1881—Hindus, 129,776; Muhammadans, 3374; Jains, 5324; and 'others,' 42. Of the 376 villages comprising the *tahsíl*, 301 contained less than five hundred inhabitants. Land revenue (1881), £7614; total Government revenue, including local rates and cesses levied on land, £9315; rental paid by cultivators, £17,451. Excluding the head-quarters courts, the *tahsíl* contains 1 civil and 1 criminal court. Number of police stations (*thánás*), 10, besides 3 outpost stations. Strength of regular police, 120 men, with 242 village watchmen (*chaukídárs*).

Lálitpur.—Town, municipality, and administrative head-quarters of Lálitpur District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 24° 41′ 30″ N., long. 78° 27′ 50″ E. Situated on the Jhánsi and Ságar (Saugor) road, close to the west bank of the Sahjád Nadi. Many of the inhabitants are agriculturists. Population (1872) 8976; (1881) 10,684, namely, males 5655, and females 5029. Classified according to religion, there were in 1881—Hindus, 8256; Muhammadans, 1323; Jains, 1072; Christians, 11; and 'others,' 22. Area of town site, 1015 acres. Well-built, white-washed masonry houses give picturesqueness to the main streets; but the side streets consist of mere tortuous alleys. An excellent modern *bázár*, built by a late Government officer, forms a good centre for the town. Buddhist remains are built into the walls. *Tahsíli*, jail, police station, Government charitable dispensary. For Mutiny narrative, see LALITPUR DISTRICT. Municipal revenue in 1883–84, £1114, of which £839 was from octroi; average incidence of taxation, 1s. 7¼d. per head of population within municipal limits.

Lálmái Hills.—A low range in Hill Tipperah District, Bengal, nowhere exceeding 100 feet in height; about 5 miles west of Comillah (Kumillá). The range extends 10 miles north and south, with an average breadth of about 2 miles. Densely wooded, and cultivated by the Tipperahs on the *júm* system of nomadic tillage. Brown iron-ore (hydrated sesquioxide) is found, but not abundantly, which yields 38½ per cent. of iron. Silver ore in small quantities has recently been found, but it is not probable that it can be worked at a profit. The Rájá of Tipperah, to whom the Lálmái with the Maynámatí Hills were sold for £2100 by the British Government, has built a house for the use of Europeans on the highest elevation, known as the Maynámatí Hill. An old fort, with statues and bas-reliefs, was found buried in the jungle. The snake figures in the sculptures, and the presence of the pig, indicate an aboriginal or non-Hindu origin. The range takes its name from a princess, Lálmái, of the royal house of Tipperah.

Lálsot.—Town in Dausa District, Jaipur (Jeypore) State, Rájputána, situated about 40 miles south of Jaipur city. Population (1881) 8743. Hindus number 8046; Muhammadans, 506; 'others,' 191.

Lambia. — Mountain pass in Bashahr State, Punjab, over the Himálayan range bounding Kunáwar to the south. Seldom used, on account of the cracks and sinking snow, except during the summer months. Lat., according to Thornton, 31° 16′ N., long. 78° 20′ E.; elevation above sea-level, about 17,000 feet.

Landaur (*Landour*).—Hill cantonment and sanitarium in Dehra Dún District, North-Western Provinces. It forms at present a single town with Mussooree (Masuri), but with distinct jurisdiction, which is vested in the cantonment magistrate. Lat. 30° 27′ 30″ N., long. 78° 8′ 30″ E.; situated on the slopes of the Himálayas, 7459 feet above sea-level. A convalescent station for European soldiers was established in 1827, the average number of invalids being about 300 in the summer, and 100 in the winter months. The staff comprises a commandant, surgeon, and station staff officer. The united towns of Landaur and Mussooree have a permanent Anglo-Indian population of 408 persons, according to the Census of 1881, largely increased by the influx of visitors from the plains during the hot season. A special Census taken in 1880 in September, when the population is at its height, returned the inhabitants of Landaur cantonment at 4428, namely, Hindus, 2244; Muhammadans, 1457; Europeans, 679; Eurasians, 38; Native Christians, 6; and 'others,' 4. Landaur with Mussooree contains two Protestant and one Roman Catholic church, post-office, several hotels, numerous schools, and boarding-houses. For further details, see MUSSOOREE.

Landaura.—Town in Rúrki (Roorkee) *tahsíl*, Saháranpur District, North-Western Provinces, situated on the open plain, 5 miles south-east of Rúrki, and 28 miles east of Saháranpur town, in lat. 29° 48′ N., and long. 77° 58′ 15″ E. Population (1872) 5023; (1881) 5764, namely, Hindus, 3731; and Muhammadans, 1833. Village school; post-office; old fort, surrounded by a ditch, now converted into a receptacle for the sewage of the town. The inhabitants are chiefly Gújars, clansmen of the notorious chieftain Rájá Rámdayál Singh. The village was burnt for excesses committed during the Mutiny.

Lándí Khána.—The most difficult part of the Afghan end of the KHAIBAR PASS, Afghánistán; about 23 miles distant from Kadam, the eastern entrance, and about 7 miles from the western entrance. Elevation of Lándí Khána village (lat. 34° 3′ N., long. 71° 3′ E.), 2488 feet; highest point of the pass, the Lándí Kotál or fort, 3373 feet. Lándí Kotál is one of the principal stages in the pass, and has been used as a halting-place for the different British forces when passing through the Kháibar. The *sarai*, or camping ground for travellers and caravans, at Lándí Kotál is protected by a low rampart and ditch. A body of

the Irregular Levies, raised from the tribes of the pass, and under the direction of the British Political Officer in charge of the Kháibar, is now (1885) stationed at Lándí Kotál. Just beyond Lándí Kotál rises the peak popularly known as Pisgah, whence the British officers who held Lándí Kotál during the late Afghán war were wont to survey the plains of Afghánistán as far as Jalálábád. Shortly beyond Lándí Kotál, the Pass narrows to the gorge of Lándí Khána; and a few miles further it debouches on the open country of Afghánistán. Caravans entering the pass give up their Afghán escort, and are taken charge of by the Irregular Levies under British control, near Lándí Khána.

Langái.—River in the south-east of Sylhet District, Assam, which rises beyond the frontier, and, flowing northwards, forms the boundary between the Lushái hills and the State of Hill Tipperah. It ultimately falls into the Kusiára branch of the Surmá or Barák near the village of Karímganj. It is navigable for large boats in the rains, but in the cold season for only small boats. On its banks are forests of *jarúl* (Lagerstrœmia Flos-Reginæ) and *nágeswar* (Mesua ferrea), forming the most important forest reserve in Sylhet. The Langái has also given its name to a valuable elephant *mahál* or hunting-ground, reserved for the operations of the Commissariat *khedá*.

Langrin (or *Lang-rin*). — Petty State in the Khási Hills, Assam, presided over by a *siem* or chief called U Bor. Population (1881) 1152; revenue, £176, chiefly derived from dues levied on lime. The products are rice, millet, chillies, turmeric; limestone is largely quarried, and coal has been found.

Langtárái (or more probably *Laktrái*, the name of a god of the hill people).—Hill range in the State of Hill Tipperah, Bengal; runs through the State in a northerly direction, gradually disappearing in the plains of Sylhet. The principal peaks are—Pheng Pui, 1581; and Sim Basia, 1544 feet. These hills, like the other Tipperah ranges, are covered with dense bamboo jungle and huge forest timber.

Langúlíyá (*Langala*, Sanskrit; *Nágula*, Telugu—'a plough').—River formed by the junction of three streams rising in the Gondwána mountains, near Kaláhandi, Central Provinces. It flows south-east across the territory of Jaipur (Jeypore), into the plains of the Madras Presidency. In the last 30 miles of its course, the Langúlíyá forms the boundary between Vizagapatam and Ganjám Districts, entering the sea below Chicacole (in the latter District), where it is crossed by the Great Trunk Road on a fine bridge of 24 arches, much injured by the cyclone of 1876. The whole course of the river is about 140 miles; and on its banks are the towns of Singapúr, Birada, and Ráyagadda in Jaipur, and Párvatipúr, Pálkonda, and Chicacole in the plains. Its principal tributaries are the Salúr and Makkuva. The Langúlíyá irrigates the Pálkonda

division of the Chicacole *táluk*, and part of the Salúr and Bobbili estates. Its rapid current makes navigation difficult, but during the floods bamboos are floated down from the hill forests.

Langúr.—Ruined hill fort in Garhwál District, North-Western Provinces; situated in lat. 29° 55′ N., and long. 78° 40′ E., on a conical hill forming part of one of the southern Himálayan ranges. Very difficult of access, and, from a military point of view, quite valueless, there being no water. Elevation above sea, 6401 feet.

Lánjí.—Town in Búrhá *tahsíl*, Bálághát District, Central Provinces; 40 miles east of Búrhá town. Lat. 21° 30′ N., long. 80° 35′ E. Lying in low ground dotted with tanks, and bounded on the north by dense jungle, in which stands an old temple dedicated to Mahádeva, surrounded apparently by the remains of the original town. The fort, now out of repair, but once a strong place, was probably constructed by the Gonds, *circa* 1700. On the edge of the moat round it, a temple has been built to Lánjkái (the goddess Kálí), from whom the town takes its name. Population (1881) 2240, namely, Hindus, 1990; Muhammadans, 151; Jain, 1; and aboriginal tribes, 98. Lánjí has a good Government school, and a police station; and the District post connects it with the imperial postal lines.

Láo-bah.—Mountain range in the District of the Khási and Jaintia Hills, Assam; elevation of highest peak above sea-level, 4464 feet.

Láo-ber-sát.—Mountain range in the District of the Khási and Jaintia Hills, Assam; elevation of highest peak above sea-level, 5400 feet.

Láo-syn-nia.—Mountain range in the District of the Khási and Jaintia Hills, Assam; elevation of highest peak above sea-level, 5775 feet.

Láphá.—*Zamíndárí* estate in the north of Biláspur District, Central Provinces, said to date from 936 A.D. Area, 272 square miles, with 72 villages and 2024 houses. Population (1881) 12,252, namely, males 6421, and females 5831. Of the total area, only about 12,000 acres, or about 20 square miles, are cultivated. The *zamíndár* is a Kunwar by caste.

Láphágarh.—Hill fortress in Biláspur District, Central Provinces; 25 miles north of Biláspur town. Lat. 26° 41′ N., long. 91° 9′ E. Crowning the Láphá Hill, which rises 3200 feet above sea-level, with an open area on the top of 3 square miles, now overgrown with underwood. On this cool and pleasant plateau the Haihai Bánsí rulers of Chhattísgarh had one of their earliest seats, till they left, over a thousand years ago, for their capital of Ratanpur. Much of the fort wall, constructed of large slabs of hewn stone, still remains in excellent preservation.

Larawar.—*Pargána* in the Sundársi division of the States of Dhár and Dewás, under the Bhopál Agency, Central India. Area, 30 square

miles; estimated population (1881) 3000; estimated revenue, £700. This *pargána*, comprising 6 villages, was held in *jágír* by Rám Chandra Ráo Puár; on whose death in 1880 it lapsed to the above-named States. His nephew, Vithal Ráo Puár, receives a subsistence allowance of £20 a month, viz. £16, 13s. from Dhár, and £3, 7s. from Dewás.

Lárkhána.—Sub-division of Shikárpur District, Sind, Bombay Presidency, lying between lat. 27° 16′ 30″ and 28° 4′ 30″ N., and between long. 67° 15′ and 68° 32′ 30″ E. In 1881 this Sub-division comprised five *táluks*, namely, Lárkhána, Labdaryá, Kambar, Rato Dero, and Sijáwal. Since then Government has sanctioned the formation of a new *táluk*, to be formed of part of the *táluks* of Rato Dero, Sijáwal, and Kambar. The new *táluk* is to he named Sháhdádpur, and to form part of the Upper Sind Frontier District. The following paragraphs treat of Lárkhána Sub-division as it stood before these transfeis took place.

Area, 1894 square miles. Population (1881) 281,717. Bounded on the north by the Frontier District and the territory of the Khán of Khelát; east by the Indus and the Sukkur (Sakhar) and Shikárpur Sub-division; south and west by Mehar, Khelát, and the Khirthar range. With the exception of the western portion, which borders on the Khirthar Mountains, the general aspect of the country is singularly flat and uninteresting. Those parts of Lárkhána lying between the Indus and the western Nárá, and again between the latter stream and the Ghár Canal, are one dead level of rich alluvial soil, well cultivated, and, on the whole, thickly populated. They form one of the most typical examples of high-class cultivation in Sind. In other parts of the Sub-division stretch vast plains of *kalar* or saline soil, while in the vicinity of the Indus broken patches of sandy waste or low jungles of tamarisk and *babúl* occur. Canals are numerous, and afford great facilities for irrigation. The principal Government canals in the Sub-division are the Western Nárá, 30 miles long, and 100 feet wide at its mouth; the Ghár, 22 miles long and 80 feet wide; the Naurang, a continuation of the Ghár canal, 21 miles long and 90 feet wide; the Bire-ji-kúr, 27 miles long and 48 feet wide; and the Edenwáh, 23 miles long. Of the *zamíndárí* or private canals, the Sháh-ji-kúr and Dáte-ji-kúr, both 22 miles long, and the Mír, 20 miles long, are the most important. The Western Nárá, navigable by boats from May to September, is very tortuous in its course, and may be regarded as a river artificially improved. After flowing through portions of the Lárkhána, Rato Dero, and Labdaryá *táluks*, it enters the Mehar Sub-division, and falls eventually into the Manchhar Lake. The Ghár, which is also supposed to be a natural channel, is very winding, broad, and deep, with level banks. It flows through the Lárkhána and Rato Dero *táluks*, and enters Mehar by the Nasirábád *táluk*. The Government forests in Lárkhána cover an area of from

9000 to 10,000 acres. The chief trees are the *ním*, *sissu*, *babúl*, *pípal*, and *karil*. The tamarisk is occasionally met with of a large growth; it is very plentiful, and valuable as firewood. The principal minerals are coarse salt and saltpetre. Alum and sulphur occur in the hills to the west. The wild animals include the tiger, hog, antelope, hyæna, jackal, wolf, fox, porcupine, and ibex.

Population.—The total population of Lárkhána Sub-division was returned in 1856 at 148,903; by 1872, the number of inhabitants had risen to 234,575, of whom 202,008 were Muhammadans, 32,381 Hindus, and 186 of other nationalities. In 1881, the number of inhabitants was returned at 281,717, namely, 152,512 males and 129,205 females, dwelling in 433 villages and 3 towns, and occupying 40,516 houses. Muhammadans numbered 243,664; Hindus, 14,649; Sikhs, 23,242; aboriginal tribes, 126; Christians, 24; Buddhists, 6; Pársís, 5; and Jews, 1. Density of population, 149 persons per square mile. The chief Musalmán tribes are the Chándias, Jamalís, Abras, and Játs. It is from the first that this part of the country obtained the name of Chánduka or Chándko. The Jamális are a Baluch race living on the borders of the desert; the Abras inhabit the south-west of Lárkhána; the Játs are found dispersed all over the Sub-division, and are mainly cultivators and cattle-breeders. The chief towns are LARKHANA (the head-quarters), RATO DERO, and KAMBAR. Among the few antiquities of Lárkhána, the principal are the old fort in Lárkhána town, the tomb of Sháhal Muhammad Kalhora (built about 150 years ago), and of his minister Sháh Bahárah. Sháhal Muhammad was the grandson of Adam Sháh, the celebrated *fákir* (religious mendicant), whose descendants eventually became monarchs of Sind.

Agriculture.—Lárkhána contains a portion of one of the finest alluvial tracts in the whole Province, viz. that lying between the Indus, the Nárá, and the Ghár. There is, perhaps, no part of Sind so admirably suited for irrigation; and the soil is so productive as to have procured for this tract the name of the 'Garden of Sind.' Three principal crops are raised during the year, viz.—*peshras*, sown in March and reaped in July; *kharíf*, sown in June and July, and reaped in November and December; and *rabí*, sown in September and October, and reaped in April and May. The *peshras* crop includes cotton, sugar-cane, and vegetables; the *kharíf*—*joár*, *bájra*, *tíl*, rice, indigo, pulses, and hemp; the *rabí*—wheat, barley, oil-seeds, gram, peas, and tobacco. Mangoes, plantains, dates, limes, pomegranates, and other fruits are grown extensively. The first revenue settlement of the Sub-division was made by Major Goldney, in 1847; it was for seven years, and expired in 1853-54. The rates were heavy, *rabí* land being assessed as high as 5 rupees 1 anna (10s. 1½d.) per acre, and *kharíf* and *peshras* lands at 3 rupees 1 anna (6s. 1½d.). In 1855-56, the rates in Lárkhána and Kambar *táluks*

were reduced according as the cultivation was by wheel or well. The average rate on assessed cultivable land in Lárkhána is now 2s. $6\frac{3}{10}$d. per acre. In 1882-83, the area assessed to land revenue was 352,205 acres; and the area under actual cultivation was 306,467 acres.

Tenures.—Before the conquest of Sind by the British in 1843, this part of the Province was known as the Chándko *parganá*, and the ownership of the entire lands in each village seems then to have been vested in the *zamíndárs* and their heirs in perpetuity. They cultivated a portion themselves, leaving the rest to men who appear to have possessed a hereditary right to occupy, as the lands could not be taken from them at pleasure; but they paid *lápo*, or rent, to the *zamíndár*, generally in kind, at so many *kásas* per *bíghá*. Besides this there was a fee called *wájah zamíndárí*, claimed by the head-man, and leviable on the produce of the lands. When a portion of the land was sold, the purchaser became entitled to the *lápo*, but the *wájah* was still given to the head-man. The *zamíndár*, in fact, only transacted business with Government or the contractor, and he made his own collections from the tenants. The villagers paid him great respect, and his advice was generally acted upon in all the agricultural affairs of the community. The *jágír* land in this Sub-division, cultivable and uncultivable, comprises in all about 84,000 acres, of which Ghaibi Khán Chándia's estate in the Kambar *táluk* takes up 75,966 acres.

Natural Calamities.—Lárkhána is subject to floods or *léts*, which at times cause great destruction to life and property. In 1874, the Kashmor *lét*, starting from the town of the same name in the Frontier District, conjointly with the Jhali *lét*, originating in the Sukkur and Shikárpur Sub-division, inundated nearly 100,000 acres of waste and cultivated land, besides destroying in a greater or less degree 53 villages. Strong embankments or *bandhs* have been raised, but hitherto without any permanent effect.

Manufactures, etc.—The manufactures of Lárkhána consist principally of coarse cotton cloth, salt, paper; working in metals, such as culinary utensils, etc.; shoes, native saddles, and other leather work. There is also a small paper manufactory at the town of Lárkhána. Dyeing forms an important industry. The Sub-division carries on an extensive trade. The exports comprise grain of sorts, wool, cotton, and other agricultural products; the imports—English piece-goods, silks, and fruits. Lárkhána town is one of the chief grain marts of Sind. The total length of roads in the Sub-division is above 400 miles. The main road is that from Lárkhána to Shikárpur, southwards to Mehar. There are 17 ferries, most of which cross the Indus or the West Nárá Canal. Post-offices at the towns of Lárkhána, Kambar, and Rato Dero.

The *revenue* of the Sub-division in 1881-82 was £93,709; being £88,112 imperial, and £5597 local, derived from the following

sources :—Imperial—land-tax, £80,772; *abkári* or excise, £2510; drugs and opium, £1070; stamps, £3274; registration, £381: Local—cesses on land, £5019; percentage on alienated lands, £46; ferry funds, £125; fisheries, £378; fees and licences, £29. There are 3 municipalities in Lárkhána, viz. LARKHANA, RATO DERO, and KAMBAR, with a total revenue in 1881–82 of £3322. Dispensary at Lárkhána town. The number of Government schools in 1882 was 22, with 934 pupils. In 1884 the Sub-division contained 1 civil and 9 criminal courts; police stations (*thánás*), 20; regular police, 154 men.

The average annual rainfall at Lárkhána is returned at 5·17 inches. Fevers, rheumatism, and ophthalmia are prevalent.

Lárkhána.—*Táluk* of Lárkhána Sub-division, Sind, Bombay Presidency. Area, 290·6 square miles. Population (1881) 97,140, namely, 52,796 males and 44,344 females, dwelling in 75 villages and towns, and occupying 13,378 houses. Muhammadans numbered 82,341; Hindus, 5579; Sikhs, 9208; Christians, 7; Jews, 1; and Pársís, 5. The area assessed to land revenue in 1882–83, 94,012 acres; area under actual cultivation, 90,717 acres. Revenue in 1881–82, £41,450, being £39,104 imperial and £2346 local. In 1884, the *táluk* contained 1 civil and 3 criminal courts, 5 police stations (*thánás*), and 58 regular police.

Lárkhána.—Chief town and municipality of the Lárkhána Sub-division, Shikárpur District, Sind, Bombay Presidency. Situated in lat. 27° 33′ N., and long. 68° 15′ E., on the south bank of the Ghár Canal; 40 miles south-west of Shikárpur town, and 36 north-east of Mehar. The country surrounding Lárkhána is fertile and populous, and perhaps the finest tract in the whole of Sind. The spacious walks, well laid-out gardens, and luxuriant foliage, have gained for Lárkhána the title of the 'Eden of Sind.' The principal buildings are the civil court, and the usual public offices, Assistant Collector's and travellers' bungalows, dispensary, 3 *bázárs*. In the time of the Talpur Mírs the fort served as an arsenal, and afterwards, under British rule, it was turned into an hospital and jail. The population in 1881 was returned at 13,188, namely, 7155 males and 6033 females. Muhammadans numbered 7402; Hindus, 1699; Pársís, 5; Christians, 2; and 'others,' 4080. Lárkhána is one of the most important grain marts of Sind, and is famous for a species of rice called *sugdási*. Large local traffic in metals, cloth, and leather. The principal manufactures are cloth of mixed silk and cotton, coarse cotton cloth, metal vessels, and leather goods. The antiquities consist of the old fort already mentioned, and the tomb of Sháh Bahárah. The income of the municipality in 1882–83 was £2230; and the incidence of taxation, 2s. 5¾d. per head of population.

Lashkarpur.—Village in the south-west of Sylhet District, Assam,

on the Kwahi river. Lat. 24° 16′ 25″ N., long. 91° 30′ 30″ E. The village is celebrated for several handicrafts. A little colony of Musalmáns manufacture *talwárs* or swords, and *dáos* or hill knives, skilfully damascening the blades with silver and brass. In the neighbourhood, lac is collected from the branches of trees of the fig order, and worked up into a variety of elegant articles known as *pukálá* work. In some cases, the lac is tastefully inlaid with the blue feathers of the kingfisher, and with talc. Bracelets are also made of lac by Muhammadan women.

Laswári (or *Náswári*).—Village in Alwar (Ulwar) State, Rájputána. Lat. 27° 33′ 30″ N., long. 76° 54′ 45″ E.; situated 8 miles south-east of Rámgarh and about 20 miles south-east of Alwar city. Famous as the scene of the great battle of the 1st November 1803, which destroyed the Maráthá power in India. The battle is thus described by Marshman:—'He (Lord Lake) had received an unfounded report that the Maráthá army was endeavouring to avoid him, and, with his usual impetuosity, started at midnight in search of it with his cavalry alone, leaving orders for the infantry to follow. He came up with the encampment of the enemy at daybreak on the 1st November, at the village of Laswári, and found them, as usual, entrenched in a formidable position, with their guns drawn up in the front. The general led his cavalry up in person to the attack; a fearful discharge of grape and double-headed shot mowed down column after column, and rendered the fiery valour of the troops useless. To prevent their utter extinction, the general was obliged to withdraw them from the conflict, to await the arrival of the infantry, who had marched 65 miles in the preceding forty-eight hours, and 25 miles since midnight. After a brief rest and a hasty meal, they were launched on the enemy's guns and battalions. The engagement was the severest in which the Company's troops had ever been engaged, not excepting that of Assaye. Sindhia's Sepoys fought as natives had never fought before. They defended their position to the last extremity, contesting every point inch by inch, and refusing to give way while a single gun remained in their possession. But they were at length overpowered, and lost their ammunition and camp equipage, together with 71 pieces of cannon. It was even reported that one-half their number was left on the field, killed or wounded. On the British side, the casualties amounted to 824, one-fourth of which belonged to the 76th Regiment, which bore the brunt of the action.' [For fuller details of the battle, see the interesting account given in Appendix iv. pp. 302-309 of *The Rájputána Gazetteer*, vol. iii. (Simla, 1880).]

Láthi.—Native State in the Gohelwár *práut* or division of Káthiáwár, Gujarát, Bombay Presidency, lying between 21° 41′ and 21° 45′ 30″ N. lat., and between 71° 23′ to 71° 32′ E. long. Population (1881)

6804; area, 48 square miles; number of villages, 8. The territory is hilly in parts, and the soil black. The climate is hot and dry, and fever is the most prevalent disease. The usual cereals, sugar-cane and cotton, are grown. The nearest port is Bhaunagar. Láthi is one of the Káthiáwár 'fourth-class' States. Its chiefs are descended from Sárangjí, second brother of the founder of the Bhaunagar line. One of the Thákurs of Láthi wedded his daughter to Dámáji Gáekwár, and gave the estate of Chabhária, now called Dámnagar, in dowry, being exempted from tribute in return. He now yearly offers a horse. In 1807, the Gáekwár became security for the Thákur's engagements to keep order in his territory. The present (1882–83) chief is Bápubha, a Hindu of the Gohel Rájput caste. He administers his State in person, and enjoys an estimated gross yearly revenue of £7311. He pays a tribute of £200, 14s. jointly to the Gáekwár of Baroda and the Nawáb of Junágarh, and maintains a military force of 79 men. The family of the chief hold no *sanad* authorizing adoption. The succession follows the rule of primogeniture. There were in 1882–83, 4 schools, with 160 pupils. No transit dues are levied in the State.

Láthi.—Chief town of Láthi State, Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 21° 43′ 20″ N., long. 71° 28′ 30″ E. A railway station on the Dhorají branch line of the Bhaunagar-Gondal Railway. Contains a *dharmsála*, dispensary, post and telegraph offices, and school. The railway station is a mile out of the town, which is 55 miles west of Bhaunagar.

Lathia.—Village in Gházípur District, North-Western Provinces; distant from Zamániah 1 mile south-east. Contains a very ancient monolith column, 26 feet in height above the ground, with a richly-carved capital. Two female figures, which originally surmounted it, now lie at the base.

Laun (*Loan*).—A fertile tract of country in Ráipur District, Central Provinces, east of Simga; occupying an area of about 800 square miles, with 423 villages. The tract is watered by the Seonáth and Mahánadi. West of the latter river, the land is generally well cultivated, producing large quantities of rice. To the east, the country consists of low hills, covered with bamboos and thatching grass, whence most of the villages of the District are supplied. Along the extreme eastern boundary, there are fine *sál* forests.

Laur.—The old name for one of the three Divisions of Sylhet District, Assam. The division of Gor or Sylhet proper was conquered by the Muhammadans in the 14th century, but Laur retained its independence until the time of the Mughal Emperor Akbar. The last Hindu Rájá of Laur, Gobind, was summoned to Delhi, and there became a Musalmán. His grandson, Abid Rezá, abandoned Laur, and built the town of Baniáchang in the beginning of the 18th century. It

Area of Leiah *tahsíl*, 2428 square miles, with 103 towns and villages, 21,611 occupied houses, and 22,693 families. Population (1881) 102,612, namely, males 55,670, and females 46,942. The Muhammadans form the great bulk of the population, numbering 88,888; Hindus number 13,257; Sikhs, 465; and Christians, 2. The average annual area under cultivation for the five years 1877–81 was 92,471 acres, the chief crops being—Wheat, 57,679 acres; barley, 6333 acres; *joár*, 3749 acres; *bájra*, 3678 acres; gram, 3942 acres; and cotton, 2616 acres. Total revenue, £11,113. The administrative staff consists of 1 *tahsíldár*, and 1 *munsif* presiding over 1 criminal and 2 civil courts. Number of police circles (*thánás*), 4; strength of regular police, 48 men; village watchmen (*chaukidárs*), 158.

Leiah.—Town and municipality in Dera Ismáil Khán District, Punjab, and head-quarters of Leiah *tahsíl*. Situated on the old left bank of the Indus, somewhat to the east of the present bed, in lat. 30° 57′ 30″ N., and long. 70° 58′ 20″ E. The town was founded probably during the 16th century by Kamál Khán, a Baluch of the Mahráni family of DERA GHAZI KHAN. His descendants ruled the surrounding country for about 200 years, having their capital at Leiah, till they were supplanted by the Kalhora kings of Sind. On the establishment of Muhammad Khán Sadozái in 1792, Leiah gave place to Mankera as the capital of the new ruler. Under the Sikh Government, the town once more became the centre of administration for the neighbouring tract; and on the British occupation in 1849, it rose for a time to the rank of head-quarters of a District. In 1861, however, the District was broken up, and Leiah, together with Bhakkar, became a part of Dera Ismáil Khán. Population (1868) 5446; (1881) 5899, namely, Muhammadans, 2913; and Hindus, 2986. Number of houses, 1490. The municipal area includes a number of outlying hamlets with a total population of 18,449. Municipal income (1882–83), £637. Leiah carries on a considerable trade in local produce; and a through traffic with Afghánistán. The town contains a *dák* bungalow, charitable dispensary, and a good middle school, besides the ordinary Government courts and buildings.

Le-mro (‘*Four Towns*’).—River of British Burma. Its sources, which have not yet been explored, are situated among the mountains which occupy the northern part of Arakan. It flows in a direction generally from north to south, and is joined by several large streams before it reaches the plains in Akyab District. It enters Hunter's Bay by numerous mouths, all inter-connected by tidal creeks.

Le-myet-hna.—Township in Bassein District, Irawadi Division, British Burma. Bounded on the west by the Arakan mountains, in places 1900 feet high, which send down their well-wooded spurs eastwards, leaving a line of plain country between their lower slopes and the

Bassein river. This gradually passes into low swampy ground. The township includes the 8 circles of Sin-pywun, Le-myet-hna (North), Le-myet-hna (South), Khyauk-shay (or Chauk-se), Mye-nu, Thaung-dan, Kwon-pyin, and Dan-yin-daing. Population (1881) 49,577; gross revenue, £11,957.

Le-myet-hna.—Head-quarters of Le-myet-hna township, Bassein District, Irawadi Division, British Burma; situated on the Nga-wun or Bassein river, in lat. 17° 34′ 50″ N., and long. 95° 13′ 40″ E. When the river is high, the streets are two or three feet under water. Contains a court-house, market, and police station. Population (1881) 5355.

Lengjut.—Village on the Nowgong border of the Jaintia Hills, Assam. The weekly market is frequented by Khási and Synteng (Jaintia) traders, who bring down the produce of their hills to exchange for rice, cotton goods, salt, etc.

Li.—River in Kángra District, Punjab.—*See* SPITI.

Lidar (*Ladar*).—River in Kashmír State, Punjab; one of the head-waters of the Jehlam (Jhelum). Rises in lat. 34° 8′ N., long. 75° 48′ E., on the southern slope of the mountains bounding the Kashmír valley on the north-east, at an elevation of 14,000 feet above sea-level. Falls rapidly till it reaches the valley, and joins the Jehlam, in lat. 33° 45′ N., and long. 75° 15′ E., about 5 miles below Islámábád, after a course of 45 miles.

Likhi. — Petty State under the Máhi Kántha Agency, Bombay Presidency. The Thákur is a Múkwána Koli. Population (1881) 1307; revenue, £150. Area under tillage, 1900 acres. The Thákur pays no tribute. His family hold no deed allowing adoption; in matters of succession they follow the rule of primogeniture.

Liláján.—River of Hazáribágh District, Bengal, which, with the Mohaní, drains the north-western portion of the District. The two streams unite in Gayá District, 6 miles south of Gayá town, and continue their course together towards the Ganges, under the name of Phálgu.

Limra.—Petty State in the Gohelwár *prânt* or division of Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency; consisting of 4 villages, with 3 proprietors. Area, 7 square miles. Population (1881) 1839. The town of Limra is situated 18 miles west-north-west of Songad, 37 west of Bhaunagar, and close to Jália station on the Dhorají branch of the Bhaunagar-Gondal Railway. Estimated revenue, £2500; tribute of £93, 8s. is paid to the Gáekwár of Baroda, and £27, 16s. to the Nawáb of Junágarh. The railway station is 1½ miles from Limra town.

Limri (*Limbadi*).—Native State in the Jhálawár *prânt* or division of Káthiáwár, Gujarát, Bombay Presidency, lying between 22° 30′ 15″ and 22° 37′ 15″ N. lat., and between 71° 44′ 30″ and 71° 52′ 15″ E. long. Area, 344 square miles, with 1 town and 43 villages. Population (1872)

40,186; (1881) 43,063, namely, 22,274 males and 20,789 females, dwelling in 9677 houses. Hindus number 33,556; Muhammadans, 4632; and 'others,' 4875. The country is flat, and the soil, in some parts black and others red, is generally sandy. The Bhogáwo river flows through the State, but, like some of the smaller streams, it becomes brackish in the hot weather. The territory of Limri or Limbdi is peculiarly liable to inundations, and suffered severely from their devastations in the year 1878–79, the road between Limri and Wadhwán having been breached in many places. As regards the relations of landlord and tenant, the State is said to be reverting, like other States in Káthiáwár, to the levying of rent in kind rather than in money. The climate of Limri, though hot, is healthy. The prevailing diseases are fever and bowel complaints. Cotton and grain are cultivated, and coarse cloth is manufactured. Before the opening of the Bhaunagar-Gondal Railway, the produce was exported chiefly from the port of Dholera.

Limri is one of the Káthiáwár 'second-class' States, the chief of which executed the usual engagements in 1807. The succession follows the rule of primogeniture; there is no *sanad* authorizing adoption. The present (1884) chief is Thákur Sáhib Jaswant Singhjí Fatesinghjí, a Hindu of the Jhála Rájput caste. He has power to try his own subjects only for capital offences, without the express permission of the Political Agent; and he is entitled to a salute of 9 guns. He received his education at the Rájkumár College at Rájkot; and on 1st February 1876, on attaining his majority, he was permitted to assume full jurisdiction as a 'second-class' chief. Estimated gross revenue £22,137; tribute of £4553, 6s. is paid jointly to the British Government and to the Nawáb of Junágarh. The chief maintains a military force of 160 men. Works for irrigation are in course of construction. There were in 1882–83, 17 schools, with a total roll of 1317 pupils. No transit dues are levied in the State.

Limri.—Chief town of Limri State, Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 22° 34′ N., long. 71° 53′ E. Population (1881) 12,873, namely, 6569 males and 6304 females. Hindus number 8221; Muhammadans, 1372; Jains, 3271; Pársís, 6; and Christians, 3. On the north bank of the Bhogávo river, Limri is 14 miles south-east of Wadhwán and 90 north-west of Bhaunagar. Telegraph and post offices; dispensary. Formerly fortified, and once a populous place.

Lingána.—Hill fort in Kolába District, Bombay Presidency; 14 miles north-east of Mahád. An ascent of 4 miles leads to the summit, which is nearly 3000 feet high. Formerly a penal settlement for prisoners under the Maráthás. No fortifications now remain.

Lio.—Village in Bashahr State, Punjab. Lat. 31° 53′ N., long. 78° 37′ E.; situated on a small rocky height in Kunáwár, on the right bank

of the Spiti river, at its confluence with the Lipak. Ruined fort crowns an isolated rock east of the village. Population consists of Buddhist Thibetans. Elevation above sea, 9362 feet.

Litar Gotra.—Petty State in Rewá Kántha, Bombay Presidency, situated on the banks of the Mahi river; one of the Koli group of Pandu Mehwás States. Area, $1\frac{3}{4}$ square mile. Estimated revenue, £63; tribute of £20 is paid to the Gáekwár of Baroda. The State is ruled by 3 Kotwáls. Although most of the land is covered with brushwood, the village of Gotra has some importance from lying on the main road between Gujarát and Málwá and commanding one of the best of the Mahi fords.

Little Bághmatí.—River of Bengal.—*See* BAGHMATI, LITTLE.

Little Gandak.—River of the North-Western Provinces.—*See* GANDAK, LITTLE.

Little Ranjít.—River of Bengal.—*See* RANJIT, LITTLE.

Loan.—Tract of country, Ráipur District, Central Provinces.—*See* LAUN.

Lodhíka.—Petty State in Hallár *pránt* or division of Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency; consisting of 12 villages, with 2 proprietors. Area, 15 square miles. Population (1881) of the State, 4655, and of Lodhíka village, 1810. Estimated revenue in 1882, £2500; tribute of £128, 14s. is paid to the British Government, and £40, 10s. to the Nawáb of Junágarh. Fifteen miles south-west of Rájkot and 15 miles north-west of Gondal.

Lodhikhera.—Town and municipality in Sausar *tahsíl*, Chhindwára District, Central Provinces; situated in lat. 21° 35′ N., and long. 98° 54′ E., on the Nágpur road, 38 miles from Chhindwára town. Population (1872) 5219; (1881) 4602, namely, Hindus, 3225; Kabírpanthís, 913; Muhammadans, 376; Jains, 39; and aboriginal tribes, 49. Municipal income (1882–83), £555, of which £419 was realized from octroi duty; incidence of taxation, 1s. $9\frac{7}{8}$d. per head. Chief manufactures, excellent brass and copper utensils, and coarse cotton cloth. The town has a charitable dispensary, school, and *sarái.*

Lodhrán.—Southern *tahsíl* of Múltán (Mooltan) District, Punjab, situated between 29° 21′ 45″ and 29° 48′ N. lat., and between 71° 4′ and 71° 51′ E. long.; consisting chiefly of an arid upland tract, lying along the bank of the river Sutlej (Satlaj). Area, 781 square miles, with 179 towns and villages, 13,913 occupied houses, and 20,987 families. Population (1881) 98,203, namely, males 53,387, and females 44,816. The Muhammadans, who form the great majority of the population, number 83,259; Hindus, 14,405; Sikhs, 471; and Christians, 68. Of the 179 towns and villages comprising the *tahsíl*, 115 contain less than five hundred inhabitants. The average annual area under crops for the five years 1877–81 was 86,801 acres, the chief

crops being—wheat, 51,000 acres; *joár*, 7805 acres; indigo, 5480 acres; cotton, 5062 acres; barley, 1806 acres; *bájra*, 1137 acres; and rice, 1194 acres. Total revenue, £16,634. The *tahsíl* is in charge of a *tahsíldár*, who presides over 1 civil and 1 criminal court. Number of police circles (*thánás*), 3; strength of regular police force, 84 men; village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 220.

Loghássi.—State in Bundelkhand, North-Western Provinces.—*See* LUGHASI.

Lohágara.—Town in Jessor District, Bengal. Lat. 23° 11′ 45″ N., long. 89° 41′ 40″ E. Seat of an extensive manufacture of sugar, which is exported chiefly to Calcutta and Bákarganj; the *gúr* or molasses being imported from Khajurá and other places in exchange for rice. The sugar made is for the most part *páká* (refined).

Lohághát (or *Rikheswar*).—Cantonment in Kumáun District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 29° 24′ 15″ N., long. 80° 7′ 10″ E.; situated on the left bank of the little river Lohá, at an elevation of 5562 feet above sea-level, and enclosed on almost every side by precipitous mountains. *Bázár*, stores, bungalows, and other buildings for the accommodation of the troops. The cantonment was formerly at Champáwat, 3 miles south, but was removed to the present site for sanitary reasons. It is, however, now (1883) unoccupied by troops. A tea plantation has been established here. Population (1881) 154. Distant from Almora, 54 miles south-east.

Lohára.—*Zamíndárí* estate in Dhamtárí *tahsíl*, in the south-east of Ráipur District, Central Provinces, comprising 120 villages. Area, 364 square miles, chiefly hill and jungle, gradually sloping towards the north. The mountain known as Dallí Pahár attains a height of nearly 2000 feet. The country is well watered, being bounded on the east and west by the rivers Tendula and Karkara, while numerous streamlets descend from the hills. Little remains of the once abundant teak; but the jungles still contain a good deal of *kusam*, *mahuá*, *bijesál*, and similar trees, and yield abundance of lac, wax, and honey. The hemp and cotton are bought up by Banjárás for exportation. Iron also is smelted. Population (1881) 30,134, namely, males 15,313, and females 14,821. Average density of population, 82·8 persons per square mile. Lohára village contains a grant-in-aid school, *zamíndárí* police station, and a good garden. The *zamíndár* is a Gond; and the estate was originally granted in 1538, in return for military service, by one of the Ratanpur Rájás.

Lohára Sahaspur.—*Zamíndárí* estate in Drúg *tahsíl*, Ráipur District, Central Provinces. Area, 197 square miles, with 85 villages, and 5485 houses. Population (1881) 19,748, namely, males 9787, and females 9961. Average density of population, 100·2 persons per square mile. The greater part lies below the Sáletekri Hills,

and is exceedingly fertile and well cultivated; the rest consists of hill and jungle. The *zamíndár* is related to the Kawardá and Pandariá families.

Lohárdagá (*Lohardugga*).—District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of Bengal, lying between 22° 20′ and 24° 39′ N. lat., and between 83° 22′ and 85° 55′ 30″ E. long. Area, 12,045 square miles. Population (1881) 1,609,244 persons. Lohárdagá District forms the central and north-western portion of the Chutiá Nágpur Division. It is bounded on the north by Hazáribágh, Gayá, and Sháhábád Districts, from which it is separated by the Son (Soane) river; on the north-west and west by Mírzápur District in the North-Western Provinces and by the Native States of Sargújá, Jashpur, and Gángpur; and on the south-east and east by the Districts of Singbhúm and Mánbhúm. A portion of the eastern boundary coincides with the course of the Subarnarekhá river. The administrative head-quarters are at RANCHI.

Physical Aspects. — Lohárdagá comprises three tracts of country, differing essentially in their physical conformation—Chutiá Nágpur proper, the Five Parganás, and the Sub-division of Palámau.

Chutiá Nágpur proper, as distinguished from the administrative Division of that name, is an elevated table-land, forming the central and southern portion of Lohárdagá District. To the west, this plateau rises and stretches away towards Central India, to meet the Sátpurá mountains. Its average elevation is about 2000 feet. On the north, it is connected with the central plateau of Hazáribágh by a narrow neck of high land passing through Torí *parganá*. The surface of the Chutiá Nágpur plateau is undulating, and the slopes of the depressions lying between the ridges are cut into terraces covered with rice.

The tract commonly called the Five Parganás, consisting of *parganás* Silli, Ráhi, Bundu, Baraudá, and Tánas, lies east of the central plateau, below the *gháts*, and in most respects resembles the adjoining District of Mánbhúm. The southern portion of *parganá* Bassia, with the whole of *parganá* Biru on the south, and *parganá* Tori in the north of Chutiá Nágpur proper, also lie below the central plateau, at an average elevation of 1200 feet.

Palámau Sub-division, which forms the north-western portion of the District, consists on the east and south of spurs thrown off from the plateaux of Hazáribágh and Chutiá Nágpur, while the remainder of the tract is a tangled mass of isolated peaks and long irregular stretches of broken hills. The general run of these hill ranges is from east to west, but the relations of the minor ridges are very involved. The average elevation of the country is about 1200 feet above sea-level, but some of the higher peaks rise to more than 3000 feet. The two highest peaks in the District are—Sáru, 3615 feet, west of Ránchi; and Marang Baru, 3445 feet, north of Ránchí. The

Palámau Sub-division is wider and more rocky than Chutiá Nágpur proper, and contains no level areas of any extent, except the valleys of the North Koel and Amánat rivers, to which rice cultivation is confined.

The principal rivers of Lodárdagá are the SUBARNAREKHA, and the NORTH and SOUTH KOEL. The main confluents of the Subarnarekhá are the Kánchí and Karkari, both rising on the central plateau. The chief feeders of the North Koel are the Amánat, which rises in Hazáribágh, and the Aurangá, a picturesque stream of Chutiá Nágpur. The Káru, the Deo, and many minor streams fall into the South Koel. The highest hills are—in Chutiá Nágpur, Sáru (3615 feet) and Bárágái or Marang Buru (3445 feet); and in Palámau, Bulbul on the south-eastern boundary (3329 feet), Burí on the south-western boundary (3078 feet), and Kotám (2791 feet). Throughout the District, the hills are, as a rule, covered with tree jungle or a scrubby undergrowth, consisting of wild plum or *ber* tree (Zizyphus Jujuba) and stunted *palás* (Butea frondosa).

Jungle Products.—The entire surface of Lohárdagá was probably at one time overgrown with dense forest, but the forest area has been dwindling, owing to the spread of cultivation and the practice of girdling the *sál* tree for resin. Three different kinds of timber are exported from the Palámau forests. First, large *sál* timber is exported from the forests around Barásaud, partly by land, and partly by water down the Koel; secondly, small timber averaging 2 feet in girth and from 12 to 15 feet in length is carted from the north-east of the District into Gayá; and thirdly, very large quantities of bamboos are cut in the forests around Barásaud, and transported down the Koel to Sháhábád, Patná, and Gayá Districts. The chief jungle products are as follow:—(1) The corollas of the *mahuá* tree (Bassia latifolia), which are eaten by the poorer classes, and from which an intoxicating spirit is distilled; (2) the seeds of the *sál* tree, which are roasted, and either mixed with *mahuá* flowers or eaten alone; (3) the berry of the *jámun* tree (Eugenia Jambolana), eaten as food; (4) the bean of the *karanja* tree (Pongamia glabra); (5) lac; (6) *tasar* silk; (7) catechu; (8) resin; (9) honey; and (10) arrowroot. Throughout the Palámau Sub-division, the quantity of cleared and cultivated land bears a very small proportion to the uncleared waste; and the south and south-western portions form one vast pasture ground. A considerable number of cattle are bred on the spot; and during the dry months of the year, large herds are driven in to graze from the neighbouring Districts of Gayá and Sháhábád.

Minerals.—Iron in a nodular form, and three varieties of iron-ore, are found in the District; lime and soapstone are obtained in small quantities; and copper has been found in several places in Palámau, though not in sufficient quantity to allow of profitable working. Gold

is washed by the poorest classes from the sands of the rivers in the south of the District, especially in the valley of Sonapet, bordering on Singbhúm. There is one important coal-bearing tract situated to the north of Daltonganj, known as the DALTONGANJ COAL-FIELD. It covers an area of nearly 200 square miles, lying partly in the valley of the Koel river and partly in that of the Amánat, and extending altogether a distance of 50 miles from east to west. A portion of the south Karanpura coal-field extends into *parganá* Tori.

The District contains two picturesque waterfalls, known as Hundrughágh and Dásamghágh. The former is situated in *parganá* Jashpur, about 25 miles east-north-east of Ránchí, and is caused by the Subarnarekhá river rushing down a rocky chasm, as it passes from the second to the lowest plateau in its course towards the Delta of Bengal. The measured height of the fall is 320 feet, but this does not represent a sheer drop, except in the rains. Dásamghágh waterfall, about 22 miles to the south-east of Ránchí, is formed by the Kánchí river falling over a ledge of rock in a perpendicular descent of 114 feet.

Feræ Naturæ.—The large sorts of game met with in Lohárdagá District are the tiger, leopard, bear, wild boar, wolf, hyæna, antelope, spotted deer, ravine deer, *sámbhar*, and *nilgái*. A few bison are to be found in the south of Palámau, and packs of wild dogs are occasionally seen in the northern and western parts of that Sub-division. The small game comprise hares, quail, snipe, grey partridge, duck, teal, ortolan, plover, and pigeon. In Palámau are found, in addition to these, pea-fowl, jungle-fowl, black partridge, floriken, curlew, and heron. The superior sorts of fish are the *mahásir*, several kinds of trout, the *ruhi*, *kátlá*, *putiá*, *garai*, *chalhawá*, etc.

History.—The only materials, even for conjecture, regarding the early history of the District are the legends of aboriginal races. From these, it would appear that while the country was still covered with unbroken forest, and retained its ancient name of Jhárkhand, or 'the forest tract,' the Mundas, and subsequently the Uráons, effected a settlement on the central table-land. Although the two races did not intermarry, and in many respects remained distinct, they adopted a uniform system of government by *parhás*, or village communes. The hilly country now comprised in the Chutiá Nágpur Division remained independent, both in name and in fact, during the Muhammadan period, until the Mughal governors of Bengal and Behar failed in their attempts to push their conquests farther to the east, and therefore turned their arms towards the west and south.

The earliest Musalmán inroads (*circa* 1616 A.D.) were directed against Kokrah or Chutiá Nágpur proper, which was celebrated at the Delhi court for the diamonds found in its rivers. The Musalmáns afterwards (1640-60) made several invasions into Palámau; and at the

end of 1660 occurred the attack on Palámau fort, and its capture by Dáúd Khán, which forms the subject of a large picture (30 feet by 12) preserved by Dáúd's descendants. This picture, which is of considerable interest, has been recently photographed, and is described in detail by Colonel Dalton in the *Journal of the Asiatic Society* for 1874. Colonel Dalton's description is quoted in the *Statistical Account of Bengal*, vol. xvi. pp. 464–468.

From the date of the capture of Palámau fort until 1722, the annals of Palámau are blank. In the latter year, the ruling Rájá, Ranjít Rái, was murdered, and Jaikissen Rái, descended from the younger son of a former Rájá, was placed upon the State cushion (*gadí*). A few years afterwards, Jaikissen was shot in a skirmish, and his family fled to Megrá in Behar, and took refuge with one Udwant Rám, a *kánúngo*, who in 1770 took Gopál Rái, grandson of the murdered Rájá, to Patná, and presented him to Captain Carnac, the Government Agent, as the rightful heir to the Palámau Ráj. Captain Carnac promised the assistance of the British Government, and, after defeating the troops of the ruling Rájá, gave a *sanad* for five years to Gopál Rái and two of his cousins, and then left the country.

Palámau thus became part of the British District of Rámgarh. A year or two later, Gopál Rái was sentenced to imprisonment at Patná for being concerned in the murder of the *kánúngo*, Udwant Rám, who had helped him to power. He died at Patná in 1784, and in the same year died Bassant Rái, who had succeeded to the *gadí* on his imprisonment. Churáman Rái succeeded; but by 1813 he had become insolvent, and Palámau was sold for arrears of revenue and bought in by Government for the amount due. In 1816 the estate was granted to Fateh Náráyan Singh, Rájá of Deo in Gayá, for services rendered to the Government. But his management was so oppressive as to rouse the people into open rebellion; and in 1818, Government revoked the deed of grant, allowing the Rájá a remission of £300 a year from the revenue of his Behar estates by way of compensation.

Under Government rule, Palámau remained quiet, and continued so during the outbreak of the Kols in Chutiá Nágpur proper in 1831, which was not quelled till March 1832. This outbreak arose from the oppression of the aboriginal population by the relations and followers of the Mahárájá of Chutiá Nágpur proper, who exercised no authority whatever in Palámau. An account of the causes which led to this insurrection, and of the measures taken to put it down, will be found in the *Statistical Account of Bengal*, vol. xvi. pp. 451–454. Not before several villages had been plundered and burned, and many lives sacrificed to the enraged Kols, did the leaders surrender. The changes in administration which followed this insurrection will be found noticed

in the article on HAZARIBAGH DISTRICT. A rising of the Chero and Kharwár tribes in 1832 was soon put down; and there were no further troubles until the Mutiny of 1857, when the Kharwárs, headed by the Bhogtás, rose against their Rájput landlords; and the mutineers of the Rámgarh Battalion, taking refuge in Palámau, made common cause with Nilámbar and Pitámbar Singh, two malcontent landholders. The 26th Madras Native Infantry, and a portion of the Rámgarh Battalion which had remained loyal, defeated the insurgents at the Satbarwá forts. Nilámbar and Pitámbar Singh were taken prisoners and hanged.

Population.—The first attempt at an enumeration of the people of Lohárdagá was made at the time of the Topographical Survey of Chutiá Nágpur proper in 1868. One hundred and twenty-eight houses, in different villages, and belonging to men of different castes, were taken at random, and the average number of persons per house thus ascertained was multiplied by the total number of houses in the District. The result arrived at was a population of 1,412,956, the area of the District at that time being 11,404 square miles. According to an experimental Census in 1869, the population was returned at 1,396,474 persons.

A regular Census was taken for the first time in 1871–72. Owing to the sparseness and ignorance of the population, no attempt at a simultaneous enumeration was made; the work was done gradually by a special salaried agency. This Census disclosed a total population, on the area of the present District of 12,045 square miles, of 1,237,123 persons, inhabiting 6486 villages and 240,843 houses. In 1881, a simultaneous Census taken over the whole District returned the population at 1,609,244, showing an apparent increase over the enumeration of 1872 of 372,121, or 30·08 per cent., in nine years. This increase, however, is only apparent, and is due to the defective enumeration of 1872, which was only approximate, and partook rather of the character of a survey of the population than of a systematic Census. Lohárdagá is one of the great recruiting Districts for coolie emigrants to other parts of India and to the West Indies and Mauritius, and immigration into it from outside is almost *nil.* It is considered, therefore, that about 15 per cent. of the apparent increase is due to imperfect enumeration in 1872.

The results of the more careful and simultaneous Census of 1881 may be summarized as follows:—Area of District, 12,045 square miles, with 4 towns, 12,126 villages, and 289,886 occupied houses. Total population, 1,609,244, namely, males 796,657, and females 812,587; proportion of males, 49·5 per cent. Average density of population, 133·6 persons per square mile; number of towns or villages, 1·01 per square mile; persons per town or village, 133; houses per square mile, 24·49; inmates per house, 5·55. Classified according to age, there are,

under 15 years of age—males 375,263, females 356,310; total children, 731,573, or 45·5 per cent. of the population: 15 years of age and upwards—males 421,394, females 456,277; total adults, 877,671, or 54·5 per cent. The large proportion of children is said to be due to the fact that the aboriginal races are unusually prolific. The returns of the Chutiá Nágpur Division, and of the District of the Santál Parganás, display a proportion of children to the total population bearing a direct ratio to the relative strength of the aboriginal element. Classified according to religion, the Census Report returned the population as follows:—Hindus, 868,842; Muhammadans, 77,403; Christians, 36,281; Jains, 56; Buddhist, 1; tribes professing aboriginal religions, 626,661.

The aboriginal Kols form the majority of the population, those still professing their primitive faiths, as apart from those who have accepted some form of Hinduism, or have been converted to Christianity, being returned at 591,858. The word *Kol* is popularly employed in a vague way as including not only the Mundas of Chutiá Nágpur proper and the Larkas or Hos of Singbhúm, but all Kolarian aborigines wherever found. For a detailed account of these tribes, their origin, customs, etc., the reader is referred to Colonel Dalton's valuable *Ethnology of Bengal*, quoted at considerable length in the *Statistical Account of Bengal*, vol. xvi. pp. 266–279, and vol. xvii. pp. 36–59. Colonel Dalton thinks there can be no doubt of the remote north-eastern origin of the Kolarian tribes, but little is to be found in their folk-lore to throw light on the early history of the race. The families that rank highest among them have lost their native traditions in the hazy fables invented for them by the Hindus. The lower classes, as a rule, declare themselves to be autochthones; and even the chiefs found their claims to be of noble birth on miracles that took place in the country which they call their fatherland. Besides the Kols, the Census Report includes 34,803 other aboriginal tribes still outside the pale of Hinduism. The Uráons or Oráons are, excluding the semi-Hinduized aborigines, the strongest Dravidian tribe in Bengal. They are the people known in the plains as Dhángars (hillmen), and are found in great numbers throughout the Chutiá Nágpur Division. Although they are not returned separately in the Census Report, they are probably included in the 'other aborigines' mentioned above. According to Colonel Dalton, the tribe has gradually migrated from the western coast of India—probably from Gujarát or the Konkan. A detailed account of the Uráons will be found in the *Statistical Account of Bengal*, vol. xvi. pp. 278–294. The most numerous of the semi-Hinduized aboriginal tribes in Lohárdagá are—the Bhuiyás, of whom there are 58,419; the Kharwárs, 77,341; the Dosádhs, 37,034; and Gonds, 1389, besides 58,452

'others.' The foregoing figures give a total aboriginal population (by race as apart from religion) of 859,296, or 53·4 per cent. of the total District population.

Of high-caste Hindus, the Bráhmans number 42,439; Rájputs, 47,471; Bábhans, a class of agricultural Bráhmans, who are supposed to have lapsed from ceremonial purity, 9406; Káyasths, 6690; and Baniyás, 17,556. Of lower classes or Súdra castes, the most numerous are—the Goálás or Ahírs, a pastoral caste, 78,677; the Kurmís, the great agricultural caste of the Chutiá Nágpur Division, 43,766; Kahárs (domestic servants and water-carriers), 34,700; Kámárs (blacksmiths), 34,341; Telís (oilmen), 32,835; Chamárs (skinners and workers in leather), 27,276; Koerís (cultivators), 23,540; Kumbhárs (potters), 19,568; Nápits (barbers), 17,439; Barháis (carpenters), 11,447; Dhobís (washermen), 11,021; and Mallahs (boatmen), 10,924.

The Native Christian population is much larger in Lohárdagá than in any other Bengal District. The total number of Christians in 1881 was—males 18,205, and females 18,076; total, 36,281, or 2·2 per cent. of the total population. This includes Europeans, Eurasians, etc., to the number of 289, leaving a balance of 35,992 for the native Christians. Of these, about three-fourths are baptized converts, and the remainder, though not baptized, are 'inquirers,' and call themselves Christians. Nearly all the Christians are Mundas or Uráons, and belong to the agricultural classes. Most of them are poor, but they possess considerable influence notwithstanding, and are said to be rising in public esteem. The District has been, since the founding of the original Chutiá Nágpur Mission in 1844 by the Bavarian Gossner, the most successful field of missionary labour in Bengal, and the great majority of the Christian population (23,245) belong to the Lutheran Church. There are two missions at work in the District, one sent out from Germany and the other from England. These two bodies, styled the German Lutheran Evangelical Mission, and the Church of England Mission, now work side by side with much success. A detailed account of the separate development of the two missions, together with an inquiry into the various causes affecting the progress of Christianity in Chutiá Nágpur generally, will be found in the *Statistical Account of Bengal*, vol. xvi. pp. 423–444.

Town and Rural Population.—The population of Lohárdagá is almost wholly rural. The civil station of RANCHI, itself little more than a collection of villages, has (1881), including the cantonment of Doranda, lying to the south of the town, and separated from it by a small stream, a population of 18,443 inhabitants. The other towns in the District deserving notice are—DALTONGANJ, administrative head-quarters of the Palámau Sub-division (population 7440); GARWA, on the north Koel river, the chief trading centre of Palámau Sub-division

(population 6043); LOHARDAGA, 45 miles west of Ránchí town, till 1840 the administrative head-quarters of the District (population 3461); and CHUTIA village, 2 miles east of Ránchí (whence the name Chutiá Nágpur). Ránchí is a municipality; while Dorandá, Garwá, and Lohárdagá have been formed into *chaukidárí* or police unions.

At Jagannáthpur village, 3 miles south-west of Ránchí, stands on a high rock the largest temple in the District, built on a plan resembling that of the great temple at Purí. Doisá is the site of a ruined palace once inhabited by the Rájás of Chutiá Nágpur; and at the small village of Tilmí are the remains of a ruined fortress, formerly the seat of the Thákurs, a subordinate branch of the Chutiá Nágpur family. CHOKAHATU, a village in the south-east of the District, is interesting as containing a large burial-ground still used by the Mundas. Annual fairs are held at Chutiá and Daltonganj.

The Census Report of 1881 thus classifies the villages and towns. Of the 12,130 villages in the District, no less than 9895 have less than two hundred inhabitants; 1932 from two to five hundred; 261 from five hundred to a thousand; 31 from one to two thousand; and 11 upwards of two thousand inhabitants.

With regard to occupation, the male population are divided into the following six classes :—(1) Professional class, including all Government servants, civil and military, and the learned professions, 4970; (2) domestic servants, inn and lodging-house keepers, etc., 24,293; (3) commercial class, including bankers, traders, carriers, etc., 11,098; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, including gardeners, 295,046; (5) manufacturing and industrial class, including artisans, 52,816; (6) indefinite and non-productive class, comprising general labourers, male children, and persons of unspecified or no occupation, 408,434.

Agriculture. — The system of agriculture followed in Lohárdagá District is determined by the physical conformation of the country, particularly in the case of rice, which forms the principal product of Chutiá Nágpur proper, while in Palámau its cultivation is confined to the more fertile parts of the Koel and Amánat valleys.

The rice crops of the District are divided into three classes—viz., *tewán*, or lowland rice, comprising both an early and an autumn crop; *gorá*, or upland rice; and *don*, which includes two autumn crops, and the great winter rice crop of the year. A more general and more correct classification of the crops will be found in the article on HAZARIBAGH DISTRICT. The method of rice cultivation described in that article is also followed in Lohárdagá; but rice of the highest quality is not grown to any extent in this District, although the soil is so well suited for the finest varieties that *zamíndárs*, who

cultivate both here and in Behár, import rice from Chutiá Nágpur for their own consumption in preference to that of Behar.

Other crops of Lohárdagá are wheat, barley, Indian corn, millets, peas, gram, mustard, and other oil-seeds, *pán*, cotton, and tobacco. Cotton, sown in July and cut in November, and *til* (Sesamum orientale) form the staple export crops of the Palámau Sub-division; the area under the former crop in 1870 was estimated at 9600 acres—total yield, 949 tons of raw cotton. Tobacco, which is confined to Chutiá Nágpur proper, covers only about 200 acres, the maximum out-turn, under favourable circumstances, being 28½ cwts. an acre. Opium cultivation was introduced into Chutiá Nágpur proper in 1869. In that year, the area cultivated was 387 acres, and the out-turn was 60 cwts. By 1873-74, the area under opium had risen to 1848 acres, and the out-turn to 245 cwts. The opium agency, however, was abolished in 1878. Tea cultivation has received a considerable impetus of late years. In 1870 there were but two small tea plantations in the District. By 1883 the number of gardens had increased to 30, with a total area of 1407 acres under mature and 1345 acres under immature plant; the total out-turn of leaf in the year being 249,364 lbs., or an average of 156 lbs. per acre of mature plants.

Condition of the Peasantry.—In Chutiá Nágpur proper, a farm of upwards of 33 acres, containing 22 acres of low land and 11 acres of upland, is considered a very large holding for a single husbandman; and anything below 3⅓ acres, consisting of 1⅔ acres low land and 1⅔ acres upland, a very small one. A farm of 13 acres, of which 8 acres are low land and 5 acres upland, is a fair-sized comfortable holding for the support of a cultivator and his family. But in Palámau the proportion of upland cultivated is far larger than in Chutiá Nágpur proper; and there, a farm consisting of 13 acres of low land and 26 acres of high land is considered a large one; and a holding of one-third of an acre of low land and 3⅓ acres of upland a very small one. A fair-sized comfortable holding in Palámau is about 4 acres of low land, with from 8 to 10 acres of upland. A cultivator with a middling-sized household can support himself and his family, from the proceeds of a holding of 13 acres, on the same scale as a man drawing Rs. 8 or 16s. a month in money wages. In Chutiá Nágpur proper, an ordinary pair of bullocks can plough from 5 to 7 acres of land; and in Palámau 5 acres. In Palámau a cultivator who has no plough-bullocks of his own, hires them on what is called the *bhúa* system, that is, for every bullock hired, the cultivator has to deliver 2 *maunds*, or 1½ cwts., at each of the three harvests. If he fails to pay, the value of the grain is converted into money, and the transaction treated as a loan. Throughout Palámau, the cultivators, especially those belonging to aboriginal races, are hopelessly in debt to the rural

money-lenders (*mahájan* or *sáhu*). In Chutiá Nágpur proper, it may be inferred from the general consumption of fermented liquors, and the large sums spent in litigation by the agricultural classes, that their material condition is at present fairly prosperous. Wages and prices have risen considerably of late years throughout the District. Coolies and day-labourers who in 1856 received 1½d., now earn from 1¾d. to 2¼d.; and smiths, bricklayers, and carpenters, whose wage in 1856 was 3d. to 4½d., obtain 4½d. to 6d., or even 7½d. In 1870, the price of common rice was 4s. 2d. per cwt., as against 2s. 8d. in 1859; and the price of the best cleaned rice was in 1870, 5s. 9d. per cwt., as against 3s. 9d. in 1859. In 1883, the average price of common rice was 5s. 6d. per cwt., and of wheat, 7s. 4d. per cwt.

Natural Calamities.—Mildew and a variety of blights caused by insects and worms occasionally attack the crops, and failure in the local rainfall sometimes causes drought; which, however, seldom affects any considerable area. Such partial failures are more common in Palámau than in Chutiá Nágpur proper. Floods are rendered almost impossible, except for a very short time, and within the narrowest limits, by the physical conformation of the country, and the extremely rapid discharge of surface drainage. The great famine of 1866 did not seriously affect the District. The highest prices reached were—for best rice, 11s. 6d. per cwt., and for coarse rice, 10s. 6d. per cwt. If in Chutiá Nágpur proper the autumn crop were to fail, and the price of rice were to rise to 6s. 10d. a cwt. immediately after the winter crop was off the ground, there would be reason to fear that the price would rise to 13s. 8d. a cwt. in March or April, rendering relief operations necessary.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—The principal seats of trade in Lohárdagá are Ránchí, Lohárdagá town, Pálkot, Govíndpur, Búndú, Garwá, Nagar, Untárí, Sátbarwa, and Mahárájganj. Markets are held once or twice a week according to the importance of the neighbourhood supplied. The principal trading place in the District is Garwá in Palámau, which forms the distributing centre for the surplus produce of great part of Sargújá, of the Tributary States farther west, and of Palámau Sub-division itself. The Garwá market is held during the dry season in the sandy bed of the North Koel river, and is perhaps the largest in the Chutiá Nágpur Division. Stick-lac, resin, catechu, cocoons of *tasar* silk, hides, oil-seeds, *ghí*, cotton, and iron are there collected for exportation; rice and other food-grains, brass vessels, piece-goods, blankets, broad cloth, silk, salt, tobacco, spices, drugs, and beads are brought to market for local consumption. A large amount of business is done by travelling merchants, who buy up the produce from the cultivators. Few manufactures of importance are carried on in the District. Shell-lac is manufactured in considerable quantities, a factory at Ránchí turning out on an average

292 tons of the article annually. There are also two factories at Búndú. The manufacture of lac-dye which was formerly carried on to a considerable extent, has now ceased, the natural product being completely supplanted by aniline dyes. Inferior articles of brass and iron work, coarse cloth, rough blankets, mats, baskets, rope, and rude pottery utensils are also made. The total length of roads in the District is 1024 miles, of which 56 miles are maintained from Provincial funds, at a cost of £394, and 968 miles are maintained from the District road cess funds at a cost of £2038.

Administration.—No returns are available of the revenue and expenditure previous to 1858–59. In that year, the revenue of the District, which then contained the same area as at present, with the exception of two *parganás* recently transferred from Gayá, amounted to £13,681, and the civil expenditure to £15,440. This excess of expenditure over income was, however, quite abnormal, being caused by payments (amounting to £4059) made on account of the Mutiny. In 1870–71, the net revenue amounted to £29,900, and the total expenditure to £22,563. In 1883–84, the total of six principal items of District revenue, imperial, local, and municipal, was returned at £60,035, made up as follows:—Land revenue, £11,512; excise, £29,694; stamps, £9522; registration, £772; road cess, £7375; municipal taxes, £1160. Total civil expenditure, including police, £25,674. The expansion of revenue is due for the most part to the re-settlement of Palámau at enhanced rates, and to an increase under excise and stamps. The land-tax forms a smaller proportion of the revenue of the District than in Bengal generally. In 1858-59 it amounted to £4474, or only one-third of the entire revenue of the District; by 1870–71 it had risen to £7067, but formed a still smaller proportion of the entire revenue, while in 1883–84 it was £11,512, or only one-fifth.

There were in 1860–61, 5 magisterial and 5 civil and revenue courts in Lohárdagá; in 1883 the number had increased to 10 magisterial and 7 civil and revenue courts. The number of covenanted European officers at work in the District in 1860–61 was three, and in 1883, two. For police purposes, the District is divided into 21 *thánás* (police circles), with 25 outposts. The District regular police force, including municipal and town police, numbered 501 men of all ranks, in 1883, maintained at a total cost of £9087. There is also a rural police or village watch of 3297 men, maintained by the landlords and villagers at an estimated cost, including rent-free service lands, of £8600. The total machinery, therefore, for the protection of person and property consisted in 1883 of 3798 officers and men, giving 1 man to every 3·2 square miles of the area or to every 424 persons of the population. The estimated total cost was £17,687, equal to a charge of £1, 9s. 4½d. per square mile, and about

2½d. per head of population. The number of convicted prisoners confined in the two jails of the District in 1881 was 659; number discharged, 702; daily average prison population, 182, of whom 5 were females. The Reports of the Director of Public Instruction show that in 1856-57, and again in 1860-61, there was only one Government inspected school in Lohárdagá. By 1870-71 the number of Government and aided schools had increased to 7, with 620 pupils; and in 1872-73, owing to the extension of the grant-in-aid system to primary schools, the number of Government and aided schools was 178, attended by 4553 pupils. Since then, education has made rapid progress, and the number of Government aided and inspected schools in 1882-83 was 335, with 10,314 pupils, being 6·4 pupils to every 1000 of the population. The District is divided for administrative purposes into 2 Sub-divisions, and for fiscal purposes into 44 *parganás*.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of the table-land of Chutiá Nágpur proper is said to be superior to that of any other part of India, except the lower ranges of the Himálayas. The hot weather extends over almost six weeks, commencing about the 20th April, and is never really oppressive. The rainy season lasts from the middle of June to about the first week in October, but it is not very regular. The principal diseases of the District are malarious fever and rheumatism of a severe type. Small-pox has occasionally appeared in an epidemic form, but no serious outbreak is recorded. There are three charitable dispensaries—at Ránchí, Lohárdagá, and Daltonganj, which afforded medical relief in 1883 to 239 in-door and 5678 out-door patients. The total number of registered deaths in the District in 1883 was 26,701, being at the rate of 16·6 per thousand. [For further information regarding Lohárdagá, see the *Statistical Account of Bengal*, by W. W. Hunter (Trübner & Co., 1877), vol. xvi. pp. 231-488; the *Chutiá Nágpur Survey Report*, by Captain (now Colonel) De Preé (1868); the *Palámau Survey Report*, by Captain G. H. Thompson (1866); *Report on the Land Tenures of Chutiá Nágpur*, by Mr. G. K. Webster, C.S. (1875); *Memorandum on the Revenue Administration of the Lower Provinces*, by D. J. M'Neill, Esq., C.S.; the *Bengal Census Reports* for 1872 and 1881; and the several Administration and Departmental Reports from 1880 to 1884.]

Lohárdagá. — *Sadr* or head-quarters Sub-division of Lohárdagá District, Bengal. Area, 7804 square miles; villages, 9271; houses, 207,632. Population (1881), males 556,372, and females 568,050; total, 1,124,422. Hindus numbered 459,284; Muhammadans, 34,307; Christians, 36,263; Buddhist, 1; Jains, 56; Santáls, 310; Kols, 587,194; and other aboriginal tribes, 7007. Number of persons per square mile, 144; villages per square mile, 1·19; persons per village, 121; houses per square mile, 27; persons per house, 5·4.

This Sub-division comprises the 13 police circles of Bálumat, Barwá, Bassiá, Bírú, Choriá, Korambe, Lodhmá, Lohárdagá, Pálkot, Ránchí, Sílli, Tamár and Torpa. In 1883 it contained 4 civil courts, exclusive of the court of the Judicial Commissioner, 8 criminal courts, a regular police force of 331 men, and a village watch of 2276 men.

Lohárdagá. — Town and municipality in Lohárdagá District, Bengal, and, until 1840, the administrative head-quarters of the District; situated in lat. 23° 25′ 48″ N., and long. 84° 43′ 16″ E., 45 miles to the west of RANCHI, the present head-quarters station. Population (1881) 3461, namely, males 1721, and females 1740. Municipal revenue in 1882, £145. Important market.

Lohárgáon. — Village in Ajaigarh State, Bundelkhand, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 24° 29′ 30″ N., long. 80° 22′ 25″ E.; situated on the route from Allahábád to Ságar (Saugor), 198 miles south-west of the first-named town; lies in a depression between the Panna and Bandair Hills. Formerly contained a British military station, now abandoned. Population (1881) 384. Elevation above sea-level, 1260 feet.

Lohárinaig.—Waterfall in Garhwál State, North-Western Provinces consisting of a series of cataracts on the river BHAGIRATHI. A fair road runs along the bank of the Bhágírathí river, which is crossed by wire-rope suspension bridges in six places within 10 miles below the Lohárinaig rapids. Elevation above sea, 7389 feet. Lat. 30° 57′ N., long. 78° 44′ E.

Loháru.—One of the Native States under the Political Superintendence of the Commissioner of the Hissár Division and the Government of the Punjab, lying between 28° 21′ 30″ and 28° 45′ N. lat., and between 75° 40′ and 75° 57′ E. long. The principal town, Loháru, is situated in lat. 28° 24′ N., and long. 75° 52′ E.

The founder of the State was Ahmad Baksh Khán, a Mughal, who was employed by the Rájá of Alwar (Ulwur), in negotiations with Lord Lake in 1806. In recognition of his services, he received Loháru in perpetuity from the Rájá, and the *parganá* (District) of Firozpur (Ferozepore) from Lord Lake on condition of fidelity and military service. He was succeeded by his eldest son, Shams-ud-dín Khan, who was executed at Delhi for compassing the murder of Mr. Fraser, the Resident, in 1835. The Firozpur *parganá* was confiscated, but the Loháru estate was made over to Amín-ud-dín Khán and Ziá-ud-dín Khán, the two brothers of Shams-ud-dín. The two chiefs remained in Delhi during the siege in 1857, and, after the capture, they were placed under surveillance, but were eventually released and restored to their position. Amín-ud-dín Khán died in 1869, and was succeeded by his son Alá-ud-dín, the present Nawáb of Loháru, who was born about 1833. By an arrangement of long standing, the younger chief has no

share in the management of the State, but has a fixed allowance of £1800 per annum assigned to him. The title of Nawáb was granted to Alá-ud-dín in 1874, on condition of faithful allegiance to the British Government. He has also received a *sanad* of adoption. Recently, the Nawáb having fallen into embarrassed circumstances, arrangements were made to discharge his debts by a loan from Government, repayable in twelve years. During this period, the Nawáb has resigned the management of the State, which has been placed in the hands of his son, he himself receiving the fixed allowance assigned to the younger chief of the State. Area, 285 square miles, with 54 villages, 1617 houses, and 2500 families. Population (1881) 13,754, namely, males 7539, and females 6215. Classified according to religion, the population consists of—Hindus, 12,225; Muhammadans, 1517; and Jains, 12. Estimated revenue of the State, £6900. The chief is bound to furnish a contingent of 200 horse when required. The town of Loháru contains a population (1881) of 2038, namely, 1251 Hindus, 777 Muhammadans, and 10 Jains, residing in 239 houses. The Nawáb now resides at Farukhnagar in Gurgáon District. Post-office.

Lohgarh.—Fort near the top of the Bhor Pass, Poona District, Bombay Presidency; situated about 4 miles south-west of Khandála. Seized in 1713 by Kánhojí Angria, the Maráthá pirate. Subsequently, during British operations against the last Maráthá Peshwá Báji Ráo in 1818, Lohgarh was occupied by Lieutenant-Colonel Prother. Till as late as 1845, the fort was garrisoned by a British commandant and a few troops.

Lohit.—Important branch of the Brahmaputra river in Assam, which for a long distance forms the boundary between the Districts of Sibságar and Lakhimpur. After a winding course of about 70 miles, generally in a south-westerly direction, it rejoins the parent stream near the confluence of the Dhaneswarí (Dhansiri). The large alluvial island thus formed is called the Majuli Char. It covers an area of 310,215 acres, lying wholly within the jurisdiction of Síbságar. On its right or north bank the Lohit receives the waters of the Subansirí river.

Loísinh.—Estate or *zamíndárí* in Sambalpur District, Central Provinces; 20 miles south-south-east of Sambalpur town. Population (1881) 2412, nearly all Gonds and Kandhs, residing in 26 villages; area, 60 square miles, of which only a small part is cultivated, nearly the whole estate consisting of a thick forest of *sál* and *sáj*. During the Mutiny of 1857, the inhabitants, influenced by the rebel Surendra Sá, did much mischief on the high-road from Cuttack, which runs through the estate; and Muddú, the chief's brother, was hanged for the murder of Dr. Moore. Chandru, the chief, was restored after the amnesty.

Lonár.—Town in Buldána District, Berar. Lat. 19° 58′ 50″ N.,

long. 76° 33′ E. Population (1881) 2604, the majority of whom are Bráhmans. A place of great antiquity, standing on a hill amidst undulating high lands, among which lies the salt lake of Lonár, the fabled den of the demon-giant Lonasúr, who was overcome in single combat by an incarnation of Vishnu. The god assumed the form of a beautiful youth, and, with the aid of the giant's two sisters, discovered his subterranean abode. With a single touch of his toe, he threw off the lid of the den, and found the giant sleeping on his couch. A hill near Dhákefal, about 36 miles south-west of Lonár, is said to be the lid of the lake thrown off by Vishnu, and to coincide in shape and size with the top of the lake. Lonasúr was buried in the den or hollow now occupied by the great lake, whose water is supposed to be the giant's blood. Lonár has ever since been held in great veneration.

The view of the lake is very striking. It is surrounded by a circular ridge of hills about 400 feet high, among which are several old temples and ruins of other monuments. From a crevice on the southern ridge flows an ample spring of sweet water, with a fine temple at the fountain-head. The top circumference of the hollow occupied by the lake is about 5 miles, and the cavity presents the appearance of an enormous volcanic crater. The country around is of tabular or nodular basalt. The sides of this great bowl rise abruptly at an angle of 75° to 80°, the circumference of the lake itself at their bases being about 3 miles. These slopes are covered with jungle interspersed with teak; at their feet is a belt of large trees, about 300 yards broad, encircling the basin. This belt is formed of concentric rings of tamarind and *babúl*.

A muddy space, several hundred yards broad, white and slimy, and devoid of all vegetation, surrounds the lake; and is in the rainy season covered with water. The specific gravity of the water is 1027·65. When in the dry weather evaporation reduces the level of the lake, large quantities of salts are collected, which by analysis (Malcolmson, 1837) gave in 100 parts—carbonic acid, 38; soda, 40·9; water, 20·6; insoluble matter, 0·5; and a trace of sulphate. The salt is chiefly used for the manufacture of country soap, and is exported to considerable distances. It is now proposed to farm the products of the lake, leasing the right to collect the salt for a term of years.

Lonára.—Town in Hardoi District, Oudh; 10 miles north-west of Sandilá. Population (1869) 2947; (1881) 1191, residing in 215 mud houses. Only noticeable as being the first seat of the Nikumbhs when, 300 years ago, they moved southwards from Muhamdi and drove out the Kamangárs; and still in their possession.

Lonaulí.—Town, municipality, and railway station in Poona District, Bombay Presidency; situated about 40 miles north-west of Poona city, at the top of the Bhor Pass. Lonaulí forms an important point on the south-east extension of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway. Popula-

tion (1881) 3334. A railway reservoir, about 2 miles to the south of the town, affords a fair supply of drinking water. Close to the town is a wood of fine trees, covering an area of about 56 acres. The municipality, established in 1877, had in 1882-83 an income of £100; incidence of municipal taxation, 3¾d. per head. Lonaulí contains a post-office, locomotive works, Protestant and Roman Catholic chapels, railway school, masonic lodge, and co-operative store.

Loni.—Decayed town in Gháziábád *tahsíl*, Meerut (Merath) District, North-Western Provinces. Distant from Meerut city 29 miles south-west, from Delhi 7 miles north-east. The population, which in 1872 was returned at 4085, had by 1881 dwindled to 2529, namely, Muhammadans, 1505; Hindus, 1020; and Christians, 4. Ruined fort, built by Prithwi-ráj, the Chauhán ruler of Delhi. The town was formerly a hunting residence of the Mughal Emperors. About 1789, Muhammad Sháh built a grove and tank, to water which the Eastern Jumna Canal was first constructed, though never actually used. At Uldipur, Zinát Mahal, wife of Bahádur Sháh, planted another grove, enclosed by walls and gates, and containing a scarlet-domed *báradárí*. Numerous other relics exist of the Mughal dynasty, confiscated after the Mutiny, and now for the most part in ruins. Police station, post-office.

Lormí (*Lurmi*). — Valuable estate in Mungeli *tahsíl*, Biláspur District, Central Provinces, owned by a Bairágí, to whose predecessor it was granted in 1830. Area, 92 square miles, of which rather more than half is cultivated, and nearly all cultivable.

Losar.—The highest inhabited village in Spiti, Kángra District, Punjab, consisting of sixteen households. Lat. 32° 28′ N., long. 77° 46′ E.; elevation above sea-level, about 13,400 feet.

Lovedale.—Hill station in the Nílgiri District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 11° 22′ 40″ N., long. 76° 44′ 30″ E. The Lawrence Asylum is situated here.—*See* UTAKAMAND.

Lowa.—Town in Unao District, Oudh; situated on the Sai river, 16 miles north-east of Púrwa, and 36 from Unao town. Lat. 26° 29′ N., long. 81° 1′ E. Population (1869) 3318; (1881) 3192, namely, 3135 Hindus and 57 Muhammadans.

Lowághar.—Mountain range in Bannu District, Punjab.—*See* MAIDANI.

Luckeeserai (*Lakhí-sarái*).—Railway station in Monghyr District, Bengal, at the junction of the 'chord' and 'loop' lines of the East India Railway; 262 miles from Calcutta by the former route. A broad, handsome bridge here crosses the Keul river, on the west bank of which Luckeeserai stands. Of growing importance as a railway junction.

Lucknow (*Lakhnau*).—Division or Commissionership in Oudh, under the jurisdiction of the Lieutenant-Governor of the North-Western

Provinces; lying between 26° 6′ and 27° 21′ 5″ N. lat., and between 80° 7 and 81° 56′ E. long. It forms the south-east Division of the Province of Oudh, and comprises the 3 Districts of LUCKNOW, UNAO, and BARA BANKI, each of which see separately. It is bounded on the north by Hardoi and Sítápur Districts; on the east by Bahráich and Gonda Districts; on the south by Faizábád (Fyzábád), Sultánpur, and Rái Bareli Districts; and on the west by the Ganges, separating it from the North-Western Provinces Districts of Fatehpur and Cawnpur. Area, 4504·5 square miles, containing 18 towns and 4676 villages, with 470,780 houses. Total population in 1869, 2,837,580, namely, males 1,466,831, and females 1,370,749. Total population (1881) 2,622,681, namely, males 1,350,053, and females 1,272,628. The decrease of population during the twelve years ending 1881 was, therefore, 214,899, or 7·6 per cent. The decrease varies from 4·9 per cent. in Unao to 8·5 per cent. in Bara Banki, and 10·5 per cent. in Lucknow. These Districts formed part of the tract which suffered from the drought of 1877–78, and the terrible fever of the following year. The District officers concur in ascribing the diminution to these disastrous years, and they show the rate of decrease to be highest in those *parganás* where the people suffered most.

Classified according to religion, the Census of 1881 returned the population as follows:—Hindus, 2,225,508, or 84·8 per cent.; Muhammadans, 389,154, or 14·8 per cent.; Sikhs, 282; Christians, 6407, mainly consisting of the Lucknow garrison of European troops; Jains, 1301; Pársís, 19; and Jews, 10. Among the higher castes, Bráhmans number 259,100, constituting the second most numerous caste in the Division; and Rájputs, 141,512; the two castes aggregating 400,612, or 15·3 per cent. of the total population. The Baniyás or trading class number 49,868; and the Káyasths, or writer caste, who form the bulk of the native officials, 39,410. Of the lower or Súdra castes, the most important are—Ahírs, the most numerous caste in the Division, 271,251; Chamárs, 211,385; Kurmís, 184,747; Lodhís, 157,891; Kachhís, 76,412; Korís, 64,446; Kahárs, 46,274; Gadárias, 45,966; Nais, 44,541; Telís, 42,581; Barhais, 40,751; Dhobís, 37,112; Bhurjís, 30,961; Kumbhárs, 26,424; Lohárs, 23,944; Tambulís, 20,463. The old aboriginal tribe of Pásís are returned at 227,695 in number, and are included in the Census Report among the Hindus. The ancient dominant tribe of Bhars, who ruled the country prior to the Rájput and early Muhammadan invasions, have now entirely disappeared from this part of the country, or been absorbed into some one or other of the Hindu low castes, as the Census only returns 19 Bhars in the whole Lucknow Division. The Muhammadan population consists of 347,466 Sunnís and 41,688 Shiás, the latter, who are chiefly found in the neighbourhood of Lucknow City, being the descendants

of the courtiers and retainers of the Nawáb Wazírs. Of the Christians, 4631 are Europeans, 1000 Eurasians, 5 Armenians, and 771 native converts.

Lucknow Division contains a large urban population, the number of towns, including Lucknow city and cantonment, with upwards of five thousand inhabitants, being 18, with an aggregate town population of 386,256, or 14·7 per cent. of the total population. The remainder, or rural population, is divided among 4676 villages, classified as follows:—1399 contain less than two hundred inhabitants, 1786 from two hundred to five hundred, 1018 from five hundred to a thousand, 368 from one to two thousand, 68 from two to three thousand, and 36 from three to five thousand.

Total adult agricultural population, male and female, 854,989, consisting of 30,502 landholders, 598,599 cultivators, 220,250 field labourers, and 5638 agents, etc. The population dependent on the soil, however, numbers 1,705,388, or 65·02 per cent. of the whole population of the Division. Of the total area of 4504·5 square miles, 4371·7 square miles are assessed for Government revenue. Of these, 2493·6 square miles were under cultivation in 1881, 892·9 square miles were cultivable but not under cultivation, and 985·2 square miles were uncultivable waste. Total Government assessment, including local rates and cesses, £395,266, or an average of 4s. 11⅝d. per cultivated acre. Total rental paid by cultivators, £742,607, or an average of 9s. 0½d. per cultivated acre. The gross revenue of the Lucknow Division in 1882–83 was £479,581; the total charges for civil administration, as represented by the cost of officials and police, was returned at £56,576. Justice is administered by 41 criminal courts, including that of the Judicial Commissioner of the Province, and 37 civil and revenue courts. Total number of police circles (*thánás*), 32; strength of regular police, 2386 men; village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 7485.

Lucknow.—District of Oudh, in the Lucknow Division or Commissionership, under the jurisdiction of the Lieutenant-Governor of the North-Western Provinces; lying between 26° 30′ and 27° 9′ 30″ N. lat., and between 80° 44′ and 81° 15′ 30″ E. long. Area, 989·6 square miles; population (1881) 696,824. Lucknow is bounded on the north by Hardoi and Sítápur; on the east by Bara Banki; on the south by Rái Bareli; and on the west by Unao Districts. In shape, the District is an irregular oblong, running north-west and south-east; average length, 45 miles; average breadth, 25 miles. The administrative head-quarters are at LUCKNOW CITY, the capital of the Province.

Physical Aspects.—The general aspect of the country is that of an open champaign, studded with villages, finely wooded, and in parts most fertile and highly cultivated. In the vicinity of rivers, however,

stretch extensive barren sandy tracts (*bhúr*), and there are many large sterile wastes of saline efflorescence (*úsar*). The country is an almost dead level throughout, the average slope, which is from north-west to south-east, being less than a foot per mile. The principal rivers are the GUMTI and the SAI, with their tributaries. The former enters the District from the north, and, after passing Lucknow city, turns to the east and enters Bara Banki. Its chief tributaries are the Behtá and Nagwa, two small streams, which join it on its right bank. The Sai forms the south-west boundary of the District, running almost parallel with the Gúmti, receiving as tributaries in Lucknow the Loní and Bánk *nadís*.

History.—The following paragraphs on the history of the District are condensed from the Official Settlement Report:—

'Very few of the existing clans are of ancient date. Lucknow itself was not, by the most probable accounts, founded before the time of Rájá Jai Chand of Kanauj, the downfall of whose kingdom at the hands of Sháháb-ud-dín, in 1194 A.D., saw the last of the Hindu dynasties of Northern India passing away; and the colonization of the whole of this part of the country seems due to the dispersion of the Rájputs, which the Musalmán conquest effected. There are, so far as I have been able to gather, only two or three exceptions to this—in the Janwárs of Saindar in Dewá; in the Parihárs of Ghugtír in Kúrsí, since driven back to Ahmamau; and in the Gautamas of Sassaindi in the Mohanlálganj *parganá*. The history of the former is very ancient, and seems strangely blended with that of the Bhars and Bahráich. The traditions of the Gautamas of Sassaindi connect them with the kingdom of Kanauj, and the Báis of Báiswárá, to whose powerful kingdom they became subject, subsequent to their own occupation and ownership of the soil. Some few of the Rájput colonies—as the Punwárs of Itaunjá (Mahona) and the Chauháns of Amosi—conducted their invasions under the auspices, and with the sanction, of the Delhi Emperors; for at that time the Muhammadan rule in this Province was little more than nominal, and all that the Rájputs effected seems to have been due to their own strength and exertions.

'The Rájputs, after the tide of their immigration had once set in, made themselves masters of the whole country. Amethías and Gautamas possessed themselves of Mohanlálganj and Nighohán. Subsequently there came to the former *parganá* a colony of Janwárs from Ikauna in Bahráich; but they settled peaceably under the Shaikhs, who had invaded and driven out the Amethías from the north of the *parganá*—then known as Amethi—in the middle of the 16th century.

'Báis to the south, and Chauháns through the centre, of the *parganá* held Bijnaur; and Báis invaded and possessed themselves

of Kákorí. Janwárs and Raikwárs settled in Mohan-Aurás; Nikumbhs, Gahírwárs, Gautamas, and Janwárs spread through Malihábád; Punwárs and Chauhans invaded Mahona; and Janwárs held the north of Kúrsí and Dewá. At an early period, the Janwárs were invaded by a tribe of Párihárs, and confined in Kúrsí to the north of the Kalyáni. In Dewá, they succumbed to a family of Báis.

'Then came the Musalmán conquest. Little seems to have been effected by the first invasion of Sayyid Masáúd in 1030 A.D. Traces of it may have remained in some of the old *parganá* towns, which he made his encamped settlements, as in Nagrám and Amethi of *parganá* Mohanlálganj—through which he is said to have passed—where *mahallás* are still existing, containing, as it is said, the descendants of his old followers who founded them. But for a long time they did not dare venture far from any of these, or from the head-quarters which he had fixed for them at Satrikh.

'The next invasion was that of Muhammad Bakhtiyár Khiljí, during the time of Sháháb-ud-dín, in 1202 A.D. But he too seems to have left but little trace behind him. He may have founded the village of Bakhhtiyár-nagar, near Malihábád, and may have left some Patháns in the town itself; but—though they may have resisted any attack made upon themselves, as in the case of the Báis under the Bais Rájá Sáthna of Kákori—they never ventured out into the surrounding country to colonize it.

'The earliest Musalmán colonies do not probably date from much before the middle of the 13th century. Amongst the first to come were the Shaikhs of Kasmandí in the Malihábád *parganá*, and the Sayyids of Salimábád in Kúrsí. Then came the Shaikhs of Kidwára in the Lucknow *parganá*, in the direction of Satrikh, and those of Kheolí in Dewá. Many scattered Musalmán communities are spread also through Kúrsí and Dewá, but the native accounts favour the belief that they originated from Satrikh.

'The Musalmáns frequently made short incursions from Satrikh. One of the first places they attacked was the town of Dewá, where they seem to have established themselves under Sháh Wesh, a captain of Sayyid Masáúd; and they penetrated in the direction of Lucknow as far as the town of Mandiáon or Mariáon, where they met with a repulse, and their leader fell. In a village is still a tomb of portentous length, in which a *nau gaza pír*, so called from his height, is said to have been buried. By far the greater part of the Musalmán proprietorship of villages in the District dates from the time when a Musalmán government was firmly established within the limits of the Province. They were naturally attracted towards the settlements of their own countrymen; and Musalmán villages stretch through the south of *parganás* Dewá, Kúrsí, and Lucknow, up to Kákorí.

'Local tradition states that the owners of the country, before the early Rájput and Muhammadan settlers, were certain low-caste tribes of Bhars, Arakhs, and Pásís. Who the Bhars were, is a question that still remains unanswered. Mr. Elliot says that they overran the country after the loss of Ajodhya by the Surajbansi tribes. The country had then apparently relapsed into primeval wilderness. The natives' only conception of it is that of a vast uninhabited jungle, in which none but saints and anchorites lived, who passed their time in prayer and meditation. Rájá Janmajai, son of Paríkshit, grandson of Rájá Yudisthira, of mythical times, granted them the land in *jágír*.

'The foundation of many of the towns is attributed to devotees, as Mandiáon to Mandal Rikh, Mohan to Mohangir Gosáin, Jugaur to Jagdeo Jogi, Dewá to Dewál Rikh; and they may belong to these times. The Bhars, then, found the country open to them; and in this District there was certainly some dominant clan that ruled the country, so far south as the Sai, up to the end of the 12th century.

'They seem to be of aboriginal origin, and some say belong to the forest tribes of Kols, Bhíls, Kiráts, Hais, Pardháns, and Thárús, and originally came from the Tarái. Ruins of Bhar *dihis* or village sites, cover the face of the country. They seem to have built in brick, which is more than their successors the Hindus do. The Kanauj dynasty before its fall made great efforts to wrest the country from them. Alá and Udan, Banáphar Rájputs, were sent by Rájá Jai Chandra, and first attacked Natháwán near Bijnaur, which is said to have been held by a Pásí Rájá Bigli; they then advanced to Sarsáwá near Amethi, and afterwards to Dewá, but seem to have got no farther.

'In describing the settlements of Pásís and Bhars, etc., Pásís and Arakhs seem to have been in strength in Malihábád and to have stretched south to Kákorí and Bijnaur, and along the left bank of the Sai to Sassaindí. All to the east of them were Bhars.

'The Pásís must have been an aboriginal tribe; they are disowned by every one else, and their habits would favour it. Their fondness for drink was notorious. There is not a story told of the conquest of any fort, but that it was effected by plying the occupants with wine. This is told of Bhars and Pásís alike. The natives connect them with Arakhs; they have an account of a Bhar dynasty founded about A.D. 918, by Tílok Chand, the head of the tribe. This chief fixed upon Bahráich as his seat of empire, and led a powerful army against Rájá Bikrampál of Delhi, whom he defeated and dispossessed of his kingdom. It is then said that he held all the country up to Delhi, and all Oudh up to the mountains. His dynasty lasted for nine generations, or one hundred and fifteen years, up to A.D. 1093. It ended with Rání Bhem Deví, wife of Gobind Chand, who died without an heir, and

bequeathed the kingdom to her priestly confessor (*gúrú*), Hargobind, whose dynasty lasted for fifteen generations.'

Population.—The area comprising the present District of Lucknow contained, in 1869, a population of 778,195 souls. At the last Census in 1881, the population was returned at 696,824, showing a decrease of 81,371 souls, or 10·5 per cent., in twelve years. Lucknow was in the very centre of the tract which suffered most severely from the famine of 1877–78, and the fever epidemic of the following year; and the diminution of population is ascribed to these calamities. The results of the Census of 1881 may be briefly summarized as follows:—Area of District, 989·6 square miles, with 5 towns and 942 villages; number of houses, 131,215. Total population, 696,824, namely, males 365,305, and females 331,519; proportion of males in the total population, 52·4 per cent. Average density of population, 704 persons per square mile; towns and villages per square mile, 0·95; persons per town or village (excluding Lucknow city and cantonments), 471; number of houses per square mile, 132·5; inmates per house, 5·3. Classified according to religion, the population consisted in 1881 of—Hindus, 540,037, or 77·5 per cent.; Muhammadans, 149,921, or 21·5 per cent.; Sikhs, 218; Christians, 6280; Jains, 339; Jews, 10; and Pársís, 19. Classified according to age, there were, under 15 years of age—males 120,844, and females 107,234; total children, 228,078, or 32·7 per cent. of the population: 15 years and upwards—males 244,461, and females 224,285; total adults, 468,746, or 67·3 per cent. of the population.

Among Hindus, the higher castes of Bráhmans and Rájputs bear a less proportion to the general population in Lucknow than in any other District of Oudh. The Census of 1881 returned the Bráhmans at 45,549, or 8·3 per cent. of the Hindu population; Rájputs at 27,765, or 5·1 per cent. The Baniyás or trading class numbered 18,840; and the Káyasths, or writers and official class, 15,640. Of the lower or Súdra castes, the most numerous were—Ahírs, 65,189; Pásís (aborigines and one of the dominant classes of the country prior to the Rájput and Muhammadan invasions), 58,435; Chamárs, 58,396; Lodhís, 45,778; Kurmís, 21,261; Kachhís, 19,836; Korís, 16,333; Kahárs, 14,760; Telís, 13,428; Dhobís, 10,621; Nais, 10,439; Barhais, 8711; Bhurjís, 8019; Kumbhárs, 7314; Tambulís, 7088; Lohárs, 6263; Bhangís, 6061; Gadárias, 5917; Kalwárs, 5890; and Sonárs, 5218. Lucknow has a larger proportion of Muhammandans than any other District in Oudh, but this is mainly due to Lucknow city, which contains a Musalmán population of 94,851. By sect the Muhammadans consist of—Sunnís, 115,371, and Shiás, 34,550, the large proportion of the latter being due to the fact that Lucknow was the seat of a Shiá court during the days of the Nawábí, and the great majority of

Shiás still live in the city and immediate neighbourhood of Lucknow. Of the Muhammadans, 654 are Mewatís by race, descendants of converts to what was then the State religion; 105 Gújars; and 29 Rájputs. The Christian community comprises—Europeans, 4590; Eurasians, 946; Armenians, 5; and native converts, 739.

Town and Rural Population.—Including Lucknow city and cantonment, the District contains five towns with a population exceeding five thousand inhabitants, namely, LUCKNOW CITY, 239,773, and cantonment, 21,530; KAKORI, 7462; MALIHABAD, 7276; and AMETHI, 5654. Total urban population, 281,695, or 40·4 per cent. of the District population. Excluding Lucknow city and cantonment, the urban poputon numbered only 20,392, or 2·9 per cent. The remainder, forming the rural population, is divided among 942 villages, classified as follows: 292 villages contain less than two hundred inhabitants; 355 from two to five hundred; 203 from five hundred to a thousand; 76 from one to two thousand; 14 from two to three thousand; and 2 from three to five thousand inhabitants. With regard to the occupations of the people, the Census Report thus returns the male population:—Class (1) Professional, including all Government officials and servants, and the learned professions, 13,926; (2) domestic and menial servants, lodging-house keepers, etc., 5724; (3) commercial class, including bankers, traders, carriers, etc., 10,507; (4) agricultural class, including gardeners, herdsmen, shepherds, etc., 118,311; (5) manufacturing and industrial class, including artisans, 54,409; (6) indefinite and non-productive class (comprising 44,605 general labourers, and 117,823 male children, and persons of property of no stated occupation), 162,428.

Agriculture.—The total area of Lucknow District, after the recent transfer of *parganás* Mohán Aurás, Kúrsí, Dewá to neighbouring Districts in 1881, is 989·6 square miles. The area under cultivation was estimated by the District officer in 1882–83 at 426,000 acres, or 665 square miles. This estimate includes land counted twice over as yielding two harvests in the year. The actual cultivated area in 1883–84 was only 332,463 acres, of which 139,998 acres were irrigated, entirely by private enterprise. Of the remaining area, 139,046 acres were returned as cultivable, and 155,210 acres as uncultivable waste. There are three harvests in the year, the *rabí* in spring, the *kharíf* in the rainy season, and the *henwat* in the autumn. For the *rabí*, the chief crops are wheat, barley, gram, peas, *gujai* (a mixture of wheat and barley), and *birra* (a mixture of barley and gram, gram predominating). The land under these crops amounts to 150,026 acres, wheat heading the list with 72,329 acres, or more than one-fifth of the whole cultivated area. For the *kharíf*, the crops are rice, millets, *sáwán*, *mandwa*, *kákun*, and Indian corn or maize. For the *henwat*, the crops are *joár* and *bájra*, *másh*, *múng*, *moth*,

masúr, and *lobia*. In addition, there are the valuable tobacco and opium and *kachhiána* or vegetable crops; of which tobacco takes up 1527 acres, opium 5623 acres, cotton 910 acres, and the spices, as *zíra* (cummin seed), *saunf* (aniseed), *dhaniya* (coriander seed), 402 acres. Irrigation is carried on from rivers, tanks, and wells.

The total male adult agricultural population in 1881 was returned at 115,088, made up by 5887 landholders, 89,574 cultivators, 18,756 agricultural labourers, and 871 estate officers. Number of cultivated acres to each male agriculturist, 3·01. The population entirely dependent on the soil, however, numbered 317,553, or 45·57 per cent. of the total population of the District. Of the total area of 989·6 square miles, 91·4 square miles are held revenue free, and the remaining 898·2 square miles are assessed for Government revenue. Of the assessed area, 495 square miles were returned in 1881 as under cultivation, 168·7 square miles as cultivable, and 234·5 square miles as uncultivable waste. Total Government assessment, including local rates and cesses levied upon land, £83,843, or an average of 5s. 3¼d. per cultivated acre. Total rental paid by cultivators, including rates and cesses, £154,082, or 8s. 10⅞d. per cultivated acre. These are the rural rates. In the neighbourhood of towns, rents are much higher.

The cultivators are almost all deeply in debt, and under advances of seed grain from their landlords. Wages have remained stationary in the country, but in the towns they have decreased, owing to the departure of the Oudh court, and the consequent diminished wealth and population of the city. Ordinary agricultural labourers receive about 1½d. a day in money, when not paid in grain. Artisans, such as smiths and carpenters, receive 4½d. a day for work in their own villages, or 6d. a day if called away from home. Prices have risen much of late years. The average rate in Lucknow city for wheat (the staple crop) during the fifteen years preceding annexation, was 24 *sers* per rupee, or 4s. 8d. per cwt., while during the fifteen years subsequent to annexation (1856–70), it was 19 *sers* per rupee, or 5s. 11d. per cwt. Barley has risen from 36 *sers* per rupee, or 3s. 1d. per cwt., during the fifteen years 1841–55, to 29 *sers*, or 3s. 10d. per cwt., in the fifteen years 1856–70. In 1883 the price for wheat was returned at 18 *sers* per rupee, or 6s. 3d. per cwt.; barley, 20 *sers* per rupee, or 5s. 7d. per cwt.; and common rice, 14½ *sers* per rupee, or 7s. 9d. per cwt. The real rise of prices is, however, much higher. Grain is supplied now by railway from a larger area, the city of Lucknow has fallen off in population, and money is very scarce; all these causes should have cheapened food-grains, but the relative value of wheat compared with money has risen much more than would appear from these figures.

Tenures.—Lucknow is mainly a District of small proprietors. In

the old District, out of 1498 villages, 374 were owned by 37 *tálukdárs* In the District as at present constituted, 21 *tálukdárs* hold 246 villages. The other villages are either *bháyachára* or *zamíndárí.* In the former case a community of small proprietors hold a village with its demesne in coparcenary tenure, each shareholder enjoying a portion of the land, and also receiving a share of the rents paid by non-proprietary cultivators. It is a complex tenure. In *zamíndárí* villages there is no such mixture of rights. Several men are joint proprietors of the village, but they divide the rents only; no one has any permanent or other than permissive interest in any portion of the land. The largest estate in the District is that of Rájá Chand Sekar, who holds 28 villages, and pays a Government revenue of £3663 a year.

Famines.—Famines or severe scarcities have occurred in Lucknow in 1769, 1784–86, 1837, 1861, 1865–66, 1869, 1873, and 1877–78—all caused by drought. In 1866, the price of wheat rose to 12 *sers* per rupee, or 9s. 4d. a cwt.; and in 1869 to as high as 9 *sers* per rupee, or 12s. 5d. a cwt. Maize and gram were quoted at from 13 to 12 *sers* per rupee, or from 8s. 7d. to 9s. 4d. a cwt. in 1866 and 1869. At the height of the scarcity of 1873, cheap grain of some kind was to be had at from 18 to 16 *sers* per rupee, or from 6s. 3d. to 7s. a cwt. During the famine of 1877–78, Lucknow was one of the Districts most severely affected, and numerous Government relief works were opened.

Roads and Communications.—The District is well provided with communications by road, river, and railway. Three imperial lines of road branch out south, east, and north to Cawnpur, Faizábád, and Sítápur, metalled and bridged throughout, and aggregating, exclusive of the roads in Lucknow city and cantonments, a length of about 500 miles. The principal local lines of road are 6 in number, as follow:—(1) to Kúrsí; (2) to Dewá; (3) to Sultánpur, passing through Gosáinganj and Amethi; (4) to Rái Bareli, passing through Mohanlálganj; (5) to Mohan, which, crossing the Sai by a fine old native-built bridge, passes on to Rasúlábád, in Unao District; (6) to Malihábád, which runs on to Sandíla, a large town in Hardoi. These roads connect the capital with the *parganá* towns, and the latter are joined by others running (1) from Mahona through Kúrsí to Dewá, whence it passes on to the District of Bara Banki; (2) from Gosáinganj through Mohanlálganj to meet the Imperial Cawnpur road at Janábganj near Bani bridge; and (3) by a road from Bani bridge through Mohan to Aurás, which is there crossed (4) by a road that, passing over the Sai by a substantial bridge, runs through the upper end of the Mohan Aurás *parganá*, and joins the Malihábád and Sandíla road at Rahímábád. There is another road, some 7 miles long, leading from Lucknow to Bijnaur. These local roads are well bridged throughout, and though heavy during the rains, are well suited for the

traffic of the broad-wheeled carts of the country and the soft-footed bullocks that pull them.

River communication is not much used. The Gúmti flows south-east through part of the District for a total distance of 100 miles. But its course is tortuous, and passage slow; and it is not much used, except for the conveyance of wood and straw, which is carried down in barges, freighted sometimes with so much as 40 or 50 tons each. On the whole, the Gúmti may be said to bar rather than further communication, but Government ferry-boats are attached to various *ghâts*.

The line of railway is comprised in the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway system. It branches out in three directions—east, south-west, and north-east. The first passes through the thickly-populated *parganá* of Lucknow to Bara Banki, and, sending a branch to Bahrámghát on the Gogra, passes on through Faizábád (Fyzábád) towards Benares. The next connects Lucknow with Cawnpur, a line of 48 miles, of which about 16 miles run through this District. The last communicates with Sháhjahánpur, and passing the large and important towns of Kákori and Malihábád, traverses the Malihábád *parganá* on its way through Hardoi to Sháhjahánpur, Bareli, and Moradábád. The entire length of railway communication in the District is 53 miles.

Manufactures, Trade, etc.—Manufactures are mainly confined to LUCKNOW CITY. In the country towns are a few weavers, dyers, bangle-makers, brass-workers, and potters. Cotton-weaving has greatly declined since the introduction of European goods. The principal imports of the District are foodstuffs, piece-goods, arms, hardware, glass, crockery, and salt; exports—muslins, embroidery, cotton prints, brass vessels, lace, tobacco, etc.

Administration.—The Judicial Commissioner of Oudh, and the Commissioner of the Lucknow Division, have their head-quarters in Lucknow city. For a period of the year it is also the head-quarters of the Provincial Government. The District is administered by a Deputy Commissioner, aided by one Magistrate in special charge of the city, and a second in the cantonments, 1 or 2 Assistant Commisssioners, 3 extra-Assistant Commissioners, 3 *tahsíldárs*, and 4 Honorary Magistrates. Besides, there are a Civil Judge and a Small Cause Court Judge, who have no criminal or revenue powers. The total imperial and local revenue of Lucknow District in 1871–72 amounted to £162,926, and the expenditure to £70,534; the Government land revenue was £70,580. In 1883–84, with a reduced area, the gross revenue of the District was £127,590, of which £70,258 was derived from the land-tax. The total cost of civil administration, as represented by the cost of officials and police, was £29,564.

Including the Courts of the Judicial Commissioner of the Province and of the Commissioner of the Division, Lucknow contains 11

criminal and 7 civil courts, with a regular police force, including city and cantonment police, of 1764 officers and men, and a village watch or rural police numbering 1447 men. The District is sub-divided for revenue purposes into the three *tahsíls* of Lucknow, Mohanlálganj and Malihábád; and for police purposes into 13 circles (*thánás*). The District jail contained a daily average of 405 prisoners in 1883.

Education was afforded in 1883 by 137 schools, supported or aided by Government, and inspected by the Education Department, with a total roll on the 31st March 1883 of 6609 pupils. This is exclusive of unaided and uninspected schools, and the Census Report of 1881 returned 7760 boys and 719 girls as under instruction, besides 26,369 males and 1438 females able to read and write, but not under instruction. The principal educational institutions are the Arts College at Lucknow with its law and medical classes, and attached High School; the Sanskrit College, and the La Martinière College for the education of Europeans and Eurasians.

The only regular municipality in the District is that of Lucknow city; but a house-tax for police and conservancy purposes is raised in the following towns—Kakori, Malihábád, Amethi, Bijnaur, Chinhat, Amániganj, Itaunja, and Gosainganj.

Medical Aspects.—Average annual rainfall in the District generally, 37·6 inches; in Lucknow city, 41·4 inches. Mean annual temperature, 77·8° F. In the year 1883, the maximum temperature in May, the hottest month, was 115°; the minimum in February, the coldest month, was 38·3°.

The prevailing endemic diseases of the District are fevers, skin diseases, and bowel complaints. The most common kind of fever is intermittent of the quotidian type; the quartan type is comparatively rare. Remittent fever is not uncommon. Cholera is seldom absent from the District. There is no year in which a considerable number of deaths is not ascribed to this disease. Both forms of cholera (sporadic and epidemic) are met with. The disease appears at the setting in of the rains, and is generally prevalent during the months of July, August, September, October, and November. Small-pox generally makes its appearance in March, and attains its maximum intensity in the months of April, May, and June. It begins to decline during the rains, and almost disappears by the middle of the cold weather. Small-pox rages with virulence among all ranks of society; and, in the absence of general vaccination, numbers are carried off by it every year. The total number of deaths registered from fevers in Lucknow District (excluding the city) in 1883 was 8044, giving a rate of 17·60 per thousand of the rural population. An epidemic of small-pox in the same year caused 7500 deaths, or a rate of 16·41 per thousand. The total number of registered deaths in 1883 in the District (outside

the city) was 17,560, or at the rate of 38·43 per thousand, against an average of 35·09 per thousand in the previous five years. In Lucknow city in 1883, the deaths from fever numbered 5127, and from smallpox 2114, the total mortality being at the rate of 34·66 per thousand. Total registered deaths in District and city in 1883, 28,630. The principal medical institutions are the King's hospital, civil dispensary, and Balrámpur hospital in the city of Lucknow, at which 40,480 patients received medical relief in 1883. A lunatic asylum for the whole of Oudh is situated upon the eastern bank of the Gúmti, near the Faizábád road. [For further information regarding Lucknow, see the *Gazetteer of Oudh*, vol. ii. pp. 301–396 (published by authority, Allahábád, 1877); the *Report on the Land Settlement of Lucknow District*, by Mr. H. H. Butts, C.S. (Lucknow, 1873); the *Census Report of the North-Western Provinces and Oudh* for 1881; and the several Administration and Departmental Reports from 1880 to 1884.]

Lucknow.—*Tahsíl* or Sub-division of Lucknow District, Oudh, lying between 26° 38′ 30″ and 27° 0′ 15″ N. lat., and between 80° 42′ and 81° 8′ 30″ E. long. Bounded on the north by Malihábád *tahsíl;* on the east by Bari Banki District; on the south by Mohanlálganj *tahsíl;* and on the west by Mohan *tahsíl* of Unao. This *tahsíl* comprises the 3 *parganás* of LUCKNOW, BIJNAUR, and KAKORI. Population (1869) 468,507; (1881) 414,570, namely, males 219,327, and females 195,243. The decrease of 53,937, or 11·5 per cent., between the twelve years 1869–1881 is, as explained in the article on Lucknow District, mainly attributable to the famine of 1877–78, and the fever epidemic of the following year. Classified according to religion, the population in 1881 consisted of—Hindus, 291,179; Muhammadans, 116,541; Jains, 338; 'others,' 6512. Total number of villages and towns, 343, of which 222 contain less than five hundred inhabitants. The *tahsíl* contains (including the head-quarter Courts of the Judicial Commissioner of Oudh, the Commissioner of the Lucknow Division, and the Deputy-Commissioner of the District) 9 criminal and 7 civil courts. Number of police circles, 3; strength of regular police, 1625 men (including 876 municipal police), besides a rural police or village watch of 461 *chaukídárs.*

Lucknow.—*Parganá* of Lucknow District, Oudh; the tract lying immediately around LUCKNOW CITY, in which the whole interest of the *parganá* centres. Area, 165 square miles, of which 96 are returned as under cultivation, being practically the whole of the land available for tillage. Population (1869), including Lucknow city, 368,977; (1881) 323,970, namely, males 172,189, and females 151,781. Rents are high, but, as elsewhere, Rájputs pay less than the lower castes. Their average rent is 7s. 9d. per acre, while Lodhís pay 12s. 6d., and Kachhís as high as 27s. 3d. an acre. In individual instances in

villages around the city, rents amount to as much as £4, and even £5 an acre. Government land revenue, £14,746; average incidence, 5s. per cultivated acre. In villages around the city, the assessment falls at the rate of 13s. 1½d. per acre. Besides LUCKNOW CITY, the *parganá* contains the towns of UJARIAON, Juggam, Chinhat, Mahábballipur, and Tháwar. Total number of towns and villages, 180.

Lucknow (*Lákhnao*).—Capital city of the Province of OUDH; situated on both banks of the river Gúmti, in lat. 26° 51′ 40″ N., and long. 80° 58′ 10″ E. Distant from Cawnpur 42 miles, from Benares 199 miles, from Calcutta 610 miles. Area, 13 square miles. Population in 1881—city, 239,773, and cantonments, 21,530; total, 261,303. Though quite a modern town, Lucknow at present ranks fourth in size amongst British Indian cities, being only surpassed by the three Presidency capitals of Calcutta, Madras, and Bombay. It stands on a plain, 403 feet above sea-level. Till recent years, it formed the metropolis of a great Muhammadan kingdom, and afterwards contained the administrative head-quarters of a considerable British Province; while even at the present day it retains its position as a centre of modern Indian life, being a leading city of native fashion, and a chief school of music, grammar, and Musalmán theology. Trade and manufactures are now beginning to restore the wealth which it formerly owed to the presence of the luxurious court of the Nawáb Wazírs or kings of Oudh.

Situation and General Appearance.—Lucknow stands on both banks of the Gúmti, but the greater portion of the city stretches along its western side, a few suburbs only covering the farther shore. Four bridges span the river, two of them built by native rulers, and two since the British annexation in 1856. Viewed from a distance, Lucknow presents a picture of unusual magnificence and architectural splendour, which fades on nearer view into the ordinary aspect of a crowded oriental town. Some of the most striking buildings, which look like marble in the moonlight, are disclosed by the disillusioning sun to be degraded examples of stucco and brick. From the new bridge across the Gúmti, the city seems to be embedded in trees. High up the river, the ancient stone bridge of Asaf-ud-daulá crosses the stream. To its left rise the walls of the Machí Bhawan fort, enclosing the Lakshman *tílá* (Lakshman's hill), the earliest inhabited spot in the city, from which it derives its modern name. Close by, the immense Imámbára, or mausoleum of Asaf-ud-daulá, towers above the surrounding buildings. Farther in the distance, the lofty minarets of the Jamá Masjid or 'cathedral mosque' overlook the city; while nearer again, on the same side of the river, the ruined walls of the Residency, with its Memorial Cross, recall the heroic defence made by the British garrison in 1857. In front, close to the water's edge, the Chattar Manzil

palace, a huge and irregular pile of buildings, crowned by gilt umbrellas, glitters gaudily in the sunlight; while to the left, at some little distance, two mausoleums flank the entrance to the Kaisar Bágh, the last of the overgrown palaces built by the exiled dynasty of Oudh.

Still more picturesque panoramas may be obtained from any of the numerous towers and cupolas which abound in every quarter. But a nearer examination shows that Lucknow does not correspond in its interior arrangements to its brilliant appearance from a little distance. Nevertheless, many of its streets are broader and finer than those of most Indian towns; and the clearance effected for military purposes after the Mutiny, has resulted in greatly improving both the aspect and the sanitary condition of the city. A glacis half a mile broad surrounds the fort; and three military roads, radiating from this point as a centre, cut right through the heart of the native quarter, often at an elevation of some 30 feet above the neighbouring streets. Three other main roads also branch out from the same point, one leading across the bridge, and the two others along the banks of the Gúmti. The Residency crowns a picturesque eminence, the chief ornament of the city, containing, besides many ruined walls, an old mosque and a magnificent banian tree. An artificial mound rises near at hand, its sides gay with parterres of flowers; while in the rear, half hidden by the feathery foliage of gigantic bamboos, the graveyard covers the remains of some 2000 Europeans, who perished by war or massacre during the Mutiny of 1857. The various architectural works which adorn or disfigure Lucknow may best be considered in their historical order. South-east of the city, and separated from it by a canal, lie the cantonments, which extend over an area of 11 or 12 square miles.

History.—Like so many of the great modern cities of India, Lucknow owes its importance almost entirely to the last century. It first rose to greatness as the capital of the young dynasty which established itself in Oudh during the decay of the Mughal Empire, and spread its rule, not only over the modern Province, but also through the neighbouring tracts of Rohilkhand, Allahábád, Cawnpur, and Ghazípur. From very early times, however, a small village probably existed upon the spot where the family of Saádat Khán afterwards fixed the seat of their supremacy. The earliest inhabitants appear to have been Bráhmans and Káyasths, who dwelt around the Lakshman *tílá*, now the high ground enclosed within the Machí Bhawan fort. Here Lakshman, brother of Rám Chandra, Rájá of Ajodhya, having obtained a large tract of country up to the Gogra in *jágír*, founded the village of Lakshmanpur, on a spot sacred to Sesnág, the thousand-headed snake, who supports the world upon his back. A mosque, built by the bigoted

Aurangzeb, now covers the holy place. The village of Lakshmanpur still stood within the memory of men now living.

The Shaikhs, afterwards known as the Shaikhzádas of Lucknow, were the earliest Muhammadan conquerors of Oudh. Later on, the Patháns of Rámnagar occupied the country up to the point where the Gol Darwáza gate subsequently stood. East of this demarcating line, the Shaikhs bore rule, and built a stronghold on the site of the present Machí Bhawan fort. A small town grew up around their castle, which bore the name of Lucknow at least as early as the reign of Akbar. In the survey carried out by that Emperor, it is described as 'a large city pleasantly situated upon the banks of the Gúmti, with very delightful suburbs.' The *Aín-i-Akbarí* also mentions the tomb of Shaikh Míná Sháh, a Musalmán saint, to whom prayers were already offered. The Bráhmans then formed a leading section of the population; and Akbar, with his usual tolerant indifference, wishing to gratify them, caused the *Báj pei* sacrifice to be offered, and gave them a *lákh* of rupees. The city grew but little before his time, and its subsequent enlargements belong to three periods, those of Akbar himself, of Saádat Alí Khán, and of Asaf-ud-daulá. The oldest inhabited portions of the present city are the Hindu wards, lying in the immediate neighbourhood of the *chauk*. The wards to the south, along the line of the *chauk*, were built under Akbar, who took a great fancy to the town, and did much to promote its welfare. His son, Mírzá Salím Sháh, afterwards the Emperor Jahángír, founded Mírzá Mandi, lying to the west of the enceinte of the present fort. But none of the great buildings which now adorn the city date back to an earlier period than that of the independent Oudh dynasty.

Saádat Khán, founder of the Oudh kingdom, began life as a Persian merchant of Naishápur, and ended it as the greatest Asiatic warrior of his age, except perhaps Ahmad Khán. He became Governor (Subahdár) of Oudh in 1732 A.D., and fixed his residence at Lucknow.

Unlike his descendants, who built themselves the tasteless palaces which now fill the city, Saádat Khán was content with a comparatively humble dwelling, situated behind the Machí Bhawan. An open space, south-west of the fort, now occupied by ordnance stores, marks the site of two early buildings, the oldest in Lucknow erected by the family of Shaikhs who formerly ruled over the surrounding territory. When Saádat Khán assumed the reins of local government as Subahdár, he hired these houses from their owners at a moderate monthly rent. At first, the money was regularly paid; but in process of time, the ruling family began to regard the buildings as their own, and the rent fell into arrears. Safdar Jang and Shujá-ud-daulá gave written agreements to fulfil the engagement, but never kept them; and Asaf-ud-daulá finally confiscated the houses outright, without any compensation.

Saádat Khán himself met at first with some opposition from the Shaikhs; but in the end he was completely successful, and before his death he had made Oudh practically an independent principality. Even in his old age he retained his personal strength and his military skill; and his Hindu foes recorded with awe how he slew in single combat Bhagwant Singh Khíchi, and how his troops, when almost beaten, rushed again to the conflict where the long white beard of their chief led the van of the battle.

His son-in-law and successor, Safdar Jang (1743), lived at Delhi as Wazír; but he built the fort of Jalálábád, 3 miles south of the city, to intimidate the Báis of Báiswárá. He also rebuilt the old stronghold of Lakshmanpur, which thenceforth bore the name of Machí Bhawan, from his own crest (a fish—*machi*). Under his rule, too, the bridge across the river was begun, though not completed till the time of Asaf-ud-daulá. Safdar Jang's son and successor, Shujá-ud-daulá (1753), lived at Faizábád after the battle of Baksar (Buxar); and Lucknow received no additions during his rule.

The three earliest Nawábs of the Oudh dynasty were soldiers and statesmen, all of whom took the field in person against English, Maráthás, and Rohillás, or against the great nobles whose feudal power had reduced the central authority to a mere name. Under their government, therefore, Lucknow received few architectural embellishments of an ornamental kind. Only works of military utility, such as forts, wells, and bridges, engaged their attention; though the city continued to grow, as the head-quarters of the ruling house, and several wards were added on its spreading outskirts.

With Asaf-ud-daulá, the fourth Nawáb, a new political situation developed. He lived the contented and servile ally of the English. By their aid, Oudh had acquired Rohilkhand, and might acquire Benares; and he felt himself independent of his own people. The grandeur of Lucknow dates from the reign of this Nawáb. Yet his works did not degenerate into the mere personal extravagance of his successors. He built bridges and mosques, as well as the Imámbára, the chief architectural glory of Lucknow. Though inferior to the purest Muhammadan models of Delhi and Agra, the Imámbára, taken together with the adjoining mosque and the Rúmi Darwáza, forms a group of striking magnificence and picturesque splendour. Asaf-ud-daulá's erections are simple and grand, free from the base admixture of bastard Greek and Italian features which disfigure the later style of the Oudh dynasty. The Imámbára, constructed during the great famine of 1784, as a relief work for the starving people, now covers the remains of its founder. Tradition relates that many of the most respectable inhabitants, compelled by want, enrolled themselves amongst the workmen; and that to save their honour and keep their identity unknown, their names were

called over, and their wages paid, at dead of night. The building consists of one large hall of immense size and magnificence. It measures 167 feet in length by 52 in breadth, and cost, according to local computation, no less than a million sterling. The gaudy decorations which once covered its walls have now disappeared; and as the mausoleum stands within the walls of the fort, it serves at present as an arsenal for the British garrison. The building is as solid as it is graceful, being raised upon very deep foundations, and without a single piece of woodwork in its construction. Mr. Fergusson, though he has little to say in favour of any other architectural work in Lucknow, praises the admirable vaulting of the Imámbára, and observes that the mausoleum, 'when not too closely looked into, is not unfit to be spoken of in the same chapter as the earlier buildings.'

Amongst other works of Asaf-ud-daulá, the Rúmi Darwáza, a fine old massive and isolated gateway that still leads out of the Machí Bhawan fort, ranks highest in importance. The Daulat-khána, along the banks of the river west of the fort, and the magnificent palace known as the Residency, also belong to the same period. The latter edifice looks down upon the Gúmti from a considerable elevation, and forms the most striking feature in the whole of Lucknow. It was allotted to the British Resident by Saádat Alí when he made his own home in the magnificent Farhat Baksh. Outside the city, and across the river, lies the palace of Bibiápur, built by Asaf-ud-daulá as a country residence and hunting-lodge. Numerous other handsome edifices in various parts of the town attest the greatness of the same Nawáb, whose memory is still preserved in popular rhymes as the embodiment of liberality and magnificence.

To the reign of Asaf-ud-daulá belongs also the Martinière, a school founded by General Claude Martin, and completed after his death. It consists of a colossal Italian villa on an exaggerated scale. General Martin himself designed the plan and elevation, and showed them to the Nawáb, who wished to buy the building for a million sterling. The founder's bones were buried within the Martinière to prevent its confiscation by the Musalmán court, but were dug up and scattered during the Mutiny. The school now affords clothing and education to 120 boys.

Under Asaf-ud-daulá, the Lucknow court reached its highest splendour. The dominions of the Nawáb extended over a wider area than at any earlier or later period. All the wealth of the State was devoted to the personal aggrandizement of its ruler, and the accumulation of those materials which minister to oriental pomp. No court in India or in Europe could rival the magnificence of Asaf-ud-daulá; and his only ambition apparently consisted in discovering how many

elephants or diamonds the Nizám or Tipú possessed, in order that he might outvie them. At the marriage of his reputed son, Wazír Alí Khán, who four years afterwards murdered Mr. Cherry, and died in Chunár prison, the marriage procession consisted of 1200 elephants, and the young prince wore jewels valued at £200,000. But this vast accumulation of wealth could only be effected by the most crushing taxation. Four years afterwards, Tennant traversed the whole of Oudh, and found almost everywhere a plundered and desolate country. The Nawáb's dominions, he says, 'in defiance of the bounty of nature, display a uniform sterility.' In Rohilkhand, 'not the hundredth part of an acre is under cultivation;' and 'the solitude and gloom of the Province' were only relieved by a little prosperity where the eunuch Mián Almás administered a few districts with comparative wisdom and moderation. Of Lucknow itself he remarks, 'I never witnessed so many varied forms of wretchedness, filth, and vice.'

Saádat Alí Khán, half-brother to Asaf-ud-daulá (1798), carried his submission to the British power still further. He gave up half his dominions to the English, and in return obtained the protection of their troops quartered in his citadels. Thenceforth the Nawábs and kings of Oudh degenerated into a mere *fainéant* dynasty of pleasure-seekers, whose works no longer partook of any national or utilitarian character, but ministered solely to the gratification of the sovereign. In the place of mosques, wells, forts, or bridges, palace after palace sprang up in succession, each more ungraceful and extravagant than the last. At the same time, European influence began to make itself felt in the architecture, which grew gradually more and more debased from reign to reign. Awkward imitations of Corinthian columns supported Musalmán domes, while false Venetian blinds and stucco marble replaced the solid masonry of the earlier period. A modest mansion rented from a private family had satisfied the soldier chief, Saádat Khán, and his two successors. One palace sufficed even for the prodigal Asaf-ud-daulá, the builder of the Imámbára, the *chauk*, the *bázárs*, and the market-places. Saádat Alí, however, built numerous palaces; while with Nasír-ud-dín Haidar began an era of extravagant expenditure on monstrous residences for the royal family and their female dependants. In the Chattar Manzil lived the king's wives; in the Kaisar Pasand and other buildings, his concubines; in the Sháh Manzil, his wild beasts. He himself inhabited the Farhat Baksh, the Hazúr Bagh, the palace at Bibiápur, and many others. Wájid Alí Sháh had 360 concubines, each with a separate range of palatial apartments.

To Saádat Alí Khán's reign belongs the Farhat Baksh, or 'Giver of Delight,' the chief royal residence till Wájid Alí built the Kaisar Bágh. Part of this magnificent building, overlooking the river, the

Nawáb purchased from General Martin. The remainder he himself constructed. The great throne-room, known as the Kasr-us-Sultán or Lál Báradari, was set apart for royal *darbárs;* and at the accession of a new sovereign, it was customary for the British Resident to seat him on the throne, and present him with a *nazar*, in token of his confirmation in the sovereignty by the supreme power. Saádat Alí Khán also built all that portion of Lucknow which stretches eastward from the old Hindu wards, besides numerous small palaces, including the Dílkusha, which stands on high ground outside the city, north of the modern cantonments, affording a splendid view of the town, the river, and the surrounding country. In his time, Lucknow finally reached very nearly its present size.

Ghází-ud-dín Haidar, son of Saádat Alí Khán (1814), was the first of his line who bore the name of king. He built the greater part of the pile known as the Motí Mahal palace, around the Motí Mahal dome of his father. Along the river face, he added the Mubárak Manzil and the Sháh Manzil, on either side of the old bridge of boats. The latter formed the scene of the wild-beast fights for which the court of Oudh was famous up to the date of its extinction. Ghází-ud-dín Haidar also erected the Chiní *bázár*, the Chattar Manzil Kalán, which faces the river, and the Chattar Manzil Khurd in its rear. The Sháh Najaf, on the banks of the Gúmti, he built for his own tomb; and on the spot formerly occupied by his house when heir-apparent, he raised two magnificent mausoleums to his father and mother. He attempted to dig a canal for irrigation, which now skirts the east and south sides of the city; but it proved a failure, so far as economical results were concerned. The Kadam Rasúl or 'Prophet's Footprint,' a Muhammadan place of worship, built by Ghází-ud-dín, stands upon an artificial mound, and formerly contained a stone bearing the impress of the Prophet's foot. A pilgrim brought the holy relic from Arabia; but during the troubles of 1857 it disappeared, and has not since been recovered.

Nasír-ud-dín Haidar, son of the last-named monarch (1827), founded the Táráwáli Kothi or 'Observatory,' under the superintendence of Colonel Wilcox, his astronomer-royal. It contained several excellent instruments. On the death of Colonel Wilcox in 1847, Wájid Alí Sháh dismissed the establishment, and the instruments disappeared during the Mutiny, being probably broken up by the rebels. The Faizábád Maulvi, Ahmad-ullá Sháh, made it his head-quarters during the rebellion, and the insurgent council frequently held its meetings within the building. Nasír-ud-dín also built a great *karbala* in Irádatnagar, under which he lies buried.

Muhammad Alí Sháh, uncle of Nasír-ud-dín Haidar (1837), raised his own monument, the magnificent Husáinabad Imámbára. It consists of two enclosures, one of which stands at right angles to the other. Leaving

the fort by the great Rúmi Darwáza, a broad road near the Gúmti, a quarter of a mile in length, conducts to the gate of the outer quadrangle. A spectator standing a little to the west of the road can take in at a single view the great Imámbára of Asaf-ud-daulá and the Rúmi Darwáza to the right, with the Husáinábád mausoleum and the Jamá Masjid to the left. The whole forms one of the finest architectural prospects in the world. This king also laid out a splendid road, which leads from the Chattar Manzil through the fort along the river bank to his Imámbára. A magnificent tank, standing beside the road, dates from the same reign. Alí Sháh likewise began the erection of a mosque, at a short distance from his mausoleum, designed to surpass the Jamá Masjid of Delhi in size; but he did not live to complete it, and it stands still half built, with the scaffolding rotting away outside, untouched from the day of his death. The Sát Khanda or 'Seven-storied Tower,' another of Alí Sháh's projected works, remains similarly unfinished, only the fourth storey having reached its completion.

Amjad Alí Sháh, the fourth king (1841), made a metalled road to Cawnpur, built his own mausoleum at Hazratganj, and laid down an iron bridge across the Gúmti. This bridge was brought out from England by order of Ghází-ud-dín Haidar, who, however, died before it arrived. His son, Nasír-ud-dín Haidar, directed that it should be put up opposite the Residency, where a small temple and *ghát* now stand; but the operations for sinking wells to receive the piers proved unsuccessful, and the work was thus delayed till the accession of Amjad Alí.

Wájid Alí Sháh, the last King of Oudh (1847–1856), bears the whole opprobrium for the erection of the Kaisar Bágh, the largest, gaudiest, and most debased of all the Lucknow palaces. It was commenced in 1848, and finished in 1850, at a cost of 80 *lákhs* (say £800,000). Entering by the north-east gateway, which faces the open space in front of the Observatory, the visitor passes through a court to a gate known as the Jilaukhána, whence the royal processions used to start. Turning to the right, through a screened gateway, he arrives at the Chíni Bágh, so called from the China vessels which formerly decorated the gardens. A portal flanked by green mermaids, in the worst European taste of the last century, leads next to the Hazrat Bágh. On the right hand lie the Chándiwáli Báradari, once paved with silver, and the Khás Mukám, as well as the Bádsháh Manzil, the special residence of the king, erected by Saádat Alí Khán, but included by Wájid Alí Sháh in the plan of his new palace. On the left stands a large confused pile of buildings, called the Chandlakkhi, built by Azim-ullá Khán, the king's barber, and sold by him to the king for 4 *lákhs*. It formed the residence of the queen and the chief concubines. In this building the rebel Begam held her court, while the British prisoners lay for weeks in one of the stables

close at hand. The roadway proceeds past a tree, paved round the roots with marble, under whose shade the king used to sit on fair-days, dressed in the yellow robes of a *fakír*. The Eastern Lakhi gate, so called from its having cost a *lákh* of rupees, gives access to a magnificent open square, known pre-eminently as the Kaisar Bágh, and surrounded by the residences of the ladies of the harem. In the month of August, a great fair used to be held in this square, to which all Lucknow was admitted. Proceeding past the stone Báradari, now fitted up as a theatre, and under the Western Lakhi gate, which corresponds to its eastern namesake, the visitor reaches a building known as the Kaisar Pasand, surmounted by a gilt hemisphere. This palace was erected by Roshan-ud-daulá, minister of Nasír-ud-dín Haidar; but Wájid Alí Sháh confiscated it, and gave it as a residence to his favourite concubine, Mashuk-us-Sultán. Finally, a second Jilaukhána leads once more into the open street.

Since the British annexation, but little has been done in the way of architectural improvement, though charitable dispensaries, schools, and other works of public utility have been largely undertaken. The late Mahárájá of Balrámpur, Sir Digbijái Singh, K.C.S.I., has also founded a capacious hospital on a plot of high ground adjoining the Residency, with beds for one hundred patients.

Architecture.—Summarizing the chief architectural features, Lucknow thus contains two noble mosques, one Imámbára of imperial dimensions, four tombs of regal splendour (those of Saádat Alí Khán, of Mushid Zádi, of Muhammad Alí Sháh, and of Ghází-ud-dín Haidar), together with two great palaces, or rather collections of palaces (the Chattar Manzil and the Kaisar Bágh). Besides these larger works, it also comprises a whole host of royal garden-houses, pavilions, town mansions, temples, and mosques. Almost every building owes its origin to the late reigning family. The nobles of the court and the merchants could not display their wealth with safety in any other form than the erection of mosques or tombs. It was dangerous for any but the king's immediate relatives to live in a handsome mansion. Since the annexation, however, the nobility of Oudh have built a large number of town houses. They generally possess an imposing gateway, as one main feature of the façade, consisting of arch within arch, rising from the same base, and covered with a modern oriental profusion of gaudy colouring.

Lucknow contains the most debased examples of architecture to be found in India. Portions of the Kaisar Bágh consist of decoration in the very worst style which prevailed during the last century in Europe, and which, when banished from England, took refuge in India. 'No caricatures of architecture,' says Mr. Fergusson, writing of this city, 'are so ludicrous or so bad as those in which Italian details are

introduced.' Nowhere else has the oriental become simply vulgar. Nevertheless, many buildings in Lucknow present a sky-line and general plan of considerable beauty. Seen from a distance, the fantastic domes and pinnacles of the Martinière, the Chattar Manzil, and the Kaisar Bágh are not without a certain picturesque effect; while the more ancient tombs and minarets rise in solemn contrast of dark grey stone against the gilded summits of their younger rivals. The old buildings, also, are much more solidly built than the new. The Imámbára, now almost a hundred years old, though exposed to a heavy cannonade during the Mutiny, has not lost a single brick; while the Kaisar Bágh, not yet thirty years of age, has suffered much from decay, and already presents a ruinous appearance. Flying buttresses to support nothing but one another, copper domes gilt from top to bottom, burnished umbrellas, and balustrades of burnt clay, form frequent features in the tawdry architecture which renders the distant aspect of Lucknow so bright and sparkling. The plaster of stucco, however, gives considerable beauty to the ordinary dwellings. The finest kind is made from shells found in the dry beds of ancient lakes. This *chunam* has a brighter and purer appearance than even marble, and when lighted up with thousands of lamps, it produces an exquisitely beautiful effect.

Since the introduction of British rule, the new authorities have laid out well-kept roads, widened the tortuous native streets, and founded commodious *bázárs*, in which due attention has been paid to the comfort and convenience both of the commercial classes and their customers. The sanitary officers enforce stringent rules of cleanliness; and a municipality, containing many elective members, provides for the welfare of the city, with a just regard to native feeling and wishes.

Mutiny Narrative. — A couple of months before the outbreak at MEERUT (Merath), Sir Henry Lawrence (20th March 1857) had assumed the Chief Commissionership of the newly annexed Province of OUDH. The garrison at Lucknow then consisted of the 32nd (British) Regiment, a weak company of European artillery, the 7th Regiment Native Light Cavalry, and the 13th, 48th, and 71st Regiments of Native Infantry. In or near the city were also quartered two regiments of irregular local infantry, together with one regiment of military police, one of Oudh irregular cavalry, and two batteries of Native artillery. The town thus contained nearly ten Indian soldiers to every European, or 7000 to 750. Symptoms of disaffection occurred as early as the month of April, when the house of the surgeon to the 48th was burned down in revenge for a supposed insult to caste. Sir Henry Lawrence immediately took steps to meet the danger by fortifying the Residency and accumulating stores. On the 30th of April, the men of the 7th Oudh Irregulars refused to bite their cartridges, on the ground that they had been

greased with cow's fat. They were induced with some difficulty to return to their lines. On May 3, Sir Henry Lawrence resolved to deprive the mutinous regiment of its arms, a step which was effected not without serious delay.

On May 12, Sir Henry held a *darbár*, and made an impressive speech in Hindustáni, in which he called upon the people to uphold the British Government, as most tolerant to Hindus and Muhammadans alike. Two days earlier, the massacre at Meerut had taken place, and a telegram brought word of the event on the morning after the *darbár*. On the 19th, Sir Henry Lawrence received the supreme military command in Oudh. He immediately fortified the Residency and the Machí Bhawan, bringing the ladies and children into the former building. On the night of the 30th May, the expected insurrection broke out at Lucknow. The men of the 71st, with a few from the other regiments, began to burn the bungalows of their officers, and to murder the inmates. Prompt action was taken, and early next morning the European force attacked, dispersed, and followed up for 10 miles the retreating mutineers, who were joined during the action by the 7th Cavalry. The rebels fled towards Sítápur. Although Lucknow thus remained in the hands of the British, by the 12th of June every other post in Oudh had fallen into the power of the mutineers. The Chief Commissioner still held the cantonments and the two fortified posts at the beginning of June, but the symptoms of disaffection in the city and among the remaining native troops were unmistakeable. In the midst of such a crisis, Sir Henry Lawrence's health unhappily gave way. He delegated his authority to a council of five, presided over by Mr. Gubbins, the Financial Commissioner, but shortly after recovered sufficiently to resume the command. On June the 11th, however, the military police and native cavalry broke into open revolt, followed on the succeeding morning by the native infantry. On the 20th of June, news of the fall of Cawnpur arrived; and on the 29th, the enemy, 7000 strong, advanced upon Chinhat, a village on the Faizábád road, 8 miles from the Residency. Sir Henry Lawrence marched out and gave the enemy battle at that spot. The result proved disastrous to our arms, through the treachery of the Oudh artillery, and a retreat became necessary. The troops fell back on Lucknow, abandoned the Machí Bhawan, and concentrated all their strength upon the Residency. The siege of the enclosure began upon 1st July. On the 2nd, as Sir Henry Lawrence lay on his bed, a shell entered the room, burst, and wounded him severely. He lingered till the morning of the 4th, and then died in great agony. Major Banks succeeded to the civil command, while the military authority devolved upon Brigadier Inglis. On 20th July, the enemy made an unsuccessful assault. Next day, Major Banks was shot, and the sole command was undertaken by Inglis.

On the 10th of August, the mutineers attempted a second assault, which was again unsuccessful. The third assault took place on the 18th; but the enemy were losing heart as they found the small garrison so able to withstand them, and the repulse proved comparatively easy.

Meanwhile, the British within were dwindling away and eagerly expecting reinforcements from Cawnpur. On 5th September, news of the relieving force under Outram and Havelock reached the garrison by a faithful native messenger. On 22nd September, the relief arrived at the Alambágh, a walled garden on the Cawnpur road held by the enemy in force. Havelock stormed the Alambágh, and on the 25th fought his way with continuous opposition through the narrow lanes of the city. On the 26th he arrived at the gate of the Residency enclosure, and was welcomed by the gallant defenders within. General Neill fell during the action outside the walls. The sufferings of the besieged had been very great; but even after the first relief, it became clear that Lucknow could only be temporarily defended till the arrival of further reinforcements should allow the garrison to cut its way out. Outram, who had now re-assumed the command which he generously yielded to Havelock during the relief, accordingly fortified an enlarged area of the town, bringing many important outworks within the limits of defence; and the siege began once more till a second relieving party could set the besieged at liberty. Night and day the enemy kept up a continual firing against our position, while Outram retaliated by frequent sorties.

Throughout October the garrison continued its gallant defence, and a small party, shut up in the Alambágh, and cut off unexpectedly from the main body, also contrived to hold good its dangerous post. Meanwhile, Sir Colin Campbell's force had advanced from Cawnpur, and arrived at the Alambágh on the 10th of November. From the day of his landing at Calcutta, Sir Colin had never ceased in his endeavours to collect an army to relieve Lucknow, by gathering together the liberated Delhi field force and the fresh reinforcements from England. On the 12th, the main body threw itself into the Alambágh, after a smart skirmish with the rebels. Sir Colin next occupied the Dílkusha palace, south-east of the town, and then moved against the Martinière, which the enemy had fortified with guns in position. After carrying that post, he forded the canal, and on the 16th attacked the Sikandra Bágh, the chief rebel stronghold. The mutineers, driven to bay, fought desperately for their fortress, but before evening the whole place was in the hands of the British. As soon as Sir Colin Campbell reached the Moti Mahal, on the outskirts of the city proper, General Havelock came out from the Residency to meet him, and the second relief was successfully accomplished.

Even now, however, it remained impossible to hold Lucknow, and Sir

Colin Campbell determined, before undertaking any further offensive operations, to return to Cawnpur with his army, escorting the civilians, ladies, and children rescued from their long imprisonment in the Residency, with the view of forwarding them to Calcutta. On the morning of the 20th of November, the troops received orders to March for the Alambágh; and the Residency, the scene of so long and stirring a defence, was abandoned for a while to the rebel army. Before the final departure, Sir Henry Havelock died from an attack of dysentery. He was buried in the Alambágh, without any monument, a cross on a neighbouring tree alone marking for the time his last resting-place. Sir James Outram, with 3500 men, held the Alambágh until the Commander-in Chief could return to recapture the capital. The rebels used the interval well for the fortification of their stronghold to the utmost extent of their knowledge and power. They surrounded the greater part of the city, for a circuit of 20 miles, with an external line of defences, extending from the Gúmti to the canal. An earthen parapet lay behind the canal; a second line of earthworks connected the Motí Mahal, the Mess-house, and the Imámbára; while the Kaisar Bágh constituted the rebel citadel. Stockade works and parapets closed every street; and loopholes in all the houses afforded an opportunity for defending the passage inch by inch. The computed strength of the insurgents amounted to 30,000 Sepoys, together with 50,000 volunteers; and they possessed 100 pieces of ordnance-guns, and mortars.

On the 2nd of March 1858, Sir Colin Campbell found himself free enough in the rear to march once more upon Lucknow. He first occupied the Dilkusha, and posted guns to command the Martinière. On the 5th, Brigadier Franks arrived with 6000 men, half of them Gúrkhas sent by the Rájá of Nepál. Outram's force then crossed the Gúmti, and advanced from the direction of Faizábád (Fyzábád), while the main body attacked from the south-east. After a week's hard fighting, from the 9th to the 15th March, the rebels were completely defeated, and their posts captured one by one. Most of the insurgents, however, escaped. As soon as it became clear that Lucknow had been permanently recovered, and that the enemy as a combined body had ceased to exist, Sir Colin Campbell broke up the British Oudh army, and the work of re-organization began. On the 18th of October 1858, the Governor-General and Lady Canning visited Lucknow in state, and found the city already recovering from the devastation to which it had been subjected.

Population.—The Census of 1869 returned the total population of Lucknow, including the cantonments, as 284,779. In 1881, the Census returned the population of the city at 239,773, and the cantonments at 21,530; total, 261,303, showing a decrease of 23,476, or 8·2 per

cent., in twelve years. Classified according to religion, the population of the city and cantonment stood as follows in 1881 :—Hindus, 155,320 ; Muhammadans, 99,152 ; Jains, 338 ; Christians, 6253 ; and 'others,' 240. Males numbered 139,105, and females 122,198. The European element in the city is unusually large. The Hindus number three-fifths of the population, the Káyasth and Baniyá castes forming a considerable proportion. Many pensioners of the British Government and of the former Oudh kings reside in the city. The Lucknow Musalmáns are chiefly Shiás, that being the recognised orthodox sect under the Nawábs.

Commerce and Trade, etc. — The traffic of Oudh flows southward from Bahramghát and Faizábád through Lucknow to Cawnpur. Large quantities of grain and timber come in from the trans-Gogra Districts, while raw cotton, iron, and imported goods go northward in exchange. The Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway, with its branches, has a station in the town, and gives direct communication with Benares, Bareilly, and Cawnpur, as well as connecting with the Great Trunk lines to Calcutta, Bombay, and the Punjab. The railway has given a great impetus to trade. The chief country imports consist of wheat and other grains, *ghí*, *gúr* or molasses, sugar, spices, oil-seeds, and tobacco ; besides which a large quantity of European piece-goods, etc., are brought into the town.

Manufactures are carried on to a considerable extent ; the chief products being those which call for the oriental combination of patience, industry, minute manual skill, and delicate taste in the management of colour. Lucknow muslins and other textile fabrics have a high reputation, some 30 small establishments being engaged in this trade. Gold and silver brocade, however, made of small wires, forms the leading manufacture. It is used for the numerous purposes of Indian pomp, and has a considerable market even in Europe. The gorgeous needlework embroidery upon velvet and cotton, with gold thread and coloured silks, also employs many hands. Lucknow jewellery, once very famous, has declined since the departure of the court. Glass-work and moulding in clay still maintain their original excellence. A Kashmíri colony has introduced a small manufacture of shawls. The only enterprise conducted by Europeans is an ice-making concern. The railway workshops, however, employ many hundreds of workmen, including several pupils of the Martinière school, besides other Europeans and Eurasians. The principal markets are—the grain markets of Fatehganj and Digbijáiganj, lying to the west ; Rakábganj, at the south end of the Canning road ; Saádatganj, in the south-west ; and Sháhganj, near the new Victoria road. Imported cotton and salt are set down at Saádatganj. Molasses is sold at the Nakhkhás market, and leather in the Chikmandi. A paper factory has recently been established in the city.

Administration.—Before the amalgamation of Oudh with the North-Western Provinces in 1877, Lucknow formed the residence of the Chief Commissioner and his staff. It is still the head-quarters of the officials whose authority extends over the whole of Oudh. It also forms the Oudh head-quarters of the united Provinces of the North-Western Provinces and Oudh, and the residence of the Lieutenant-Governor for a certain period every year. The Judicial Commissioner of Oudh, the Deputy Inspector-General of Police, the Inspector of Education, the Examiner of Public Works Accounts, the Assistant Commissioner of Customs, the Chief Inspector of Post Offices, and the Conservator of Forests have their offices at Lucknow. The central officials of the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway likewise have their posts in the city. The municipal police in 1883 consisted of 876 officers and men, together with a force of *chaukídárs* and *jamadárs*, and a contonment and railway police. Besides the Balrámpur hospital, already noticed, Lucknow contains 2 similar charitable institutions, the King's Hospital and the Government Dispensary. A lunatic asylum for the whole Province stands upon the eastern bank of the river, near the Faizábád (Fyzábád) road. The municipal revenue in 1870-71 amounted to £20,018, of which £16,230 was derived from octroi. By 1883 the municipal income had increased to £26,119, of which £21,037 was derived from octroi; average incidence of taxation, 1s. 8d. per head of the population (239,773) within municipal limits.

Education, etc.—Canning College, supported by the *tálukdárs*, and assisted by a grant-in-aid from Government, was established in 1864. It contains five departments, namely, the college, school, oriental, preparatory, and law branches, and is under the management of a committee, with the Commissioner of the Division as President. The Martinière College provides education for the sons of soldiers, and has also a girls' school in connection. The American Mission conducts 7 schools, and the English Church Mission 5. Eleven other schools derive support from provincial, municipal, and private funds. The Loretto Convent and 25 other establishments offer education for girls. Lucknow, in spite of its comparative decay, still ranks as the admitted capital of Hindustáni music, song, and poetry. The Lucknow native theatres also maintain a high position in native opinion. The subjects for the dramas are largely derived from English life in India.

Military Statistics.—Lucknow forms the head-quarters of the Oudh military Division. The cantonment is healthily and well situated, 3 miles east of the city. The garrison usually comprises 3 batteries of British artillery, 1 regiment of British cavalry, 2 of British infantry, 1 of Native cavalry, and 2 of Native infantry. A battery of artillery and a detachment of Native infantry occupy the Machí Bhawan fort, and act as a garrison to command the city; but it has been proposed to

give up the ancient stronghold and erect a new fort upon some other site.

Ludhiána.—District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of the Punjab, lying between 30° 33′ and 31° 1′ N. lat., and between 75° 24′ 30″ and 76° 27′ E. long. Area, 1375 square miles (1881). Population, 618,835 persons. Ludhiána is the westernmost District of the Ambála (Umballa) Division. It is bounded on the north by the river Sutlej (Satlaj), which separates it from Jálandhar District; on the east by the District of Ambála; on the south by the Native States of Patiála, Jhínd, Nábha, and Maler Kotla; and on the west by the District of Firozpur (Ferozepore). To the north, east, and west, the boundaries are fairly symmetrical, but in the south several outlying villages belonging to Ludhiána District are scattered among the Native States mentioned above; while on the other hand, two or three groups of Patiála villages in the east are completely surrounded by British territory. Ludhiána District is divided into three *tahsíls* or Sub-divisions, Samrála to the east, Ludhiána in the centre, and Jagráon to the west. The District stands twenty-ninth in order of area, and fifteenth in order of population among the thirty-two British Districts of the Province, and comprises 1·29 per cent. of the total area, 3·29 per cent. of the total population, and 3·40 per cent. of the urban population of British territory. Notwithstanding its limited area, the District is one of the most important in the Punjab. Excluding the outlying villages, it is probably more compact and convenient for administrative purposes than any other Punjab District, the remotest point being not much more than 30 miles from head-quarters, and access to almost every part being easy by rail, or by good roads which intersect the District in all directions. The administrative head-quarters are at the town of LUDHIANA, which is centrally situated a few miles south of the Sutlej.

Physical Aspects.—The surface of Ludhiána consists for the most part of a broad plain, nowhere interrupted by hills or rivers, and stretching northward from the borders of the Native States to the south to the ancient bed of the Sutlej (Satlaj). Its soil is composed of a rich clay, broken by large patches of shifting sand, which has drifted here and there into ridges of considerable height. The distribution of the sand-layer is singularly capricious, so that a distance of only a hundred yards may carry the observer from fertile gardens into the midst of a deep and barren desert. On the eastern edge, towards AMBALA (Umballa) and the hills, the soil improves greatly, as the clay is there surmounted by a bed of rich mould, suitable for the cultivation of cotton and sugar-cane; but towards the west, the sand occurs in union with the superficial clay, and forms a light friable soil, on which cereals form the most profitable crop. Even here, however, the earth is so retentive of moisture that good harvests

are reaped from fields which appear to the eye mere stretches of dry and sandy waste, but are covered, after the autumn rains, by waving sheets of wheat and millet.

These southern uplands descend to the valley of the Sutlej by an abrupt terrace, which marks the former bed of the river. At its foot lies a half-deserted watercourse, still full at all but the driest seasons, and once the main channel of the Sutlej. Now, however the principal stream has shifted to the opposite side of the valley, leaving a broad alluvial strip of from 2 to 6 miles in width, between its ancient and its modern bed. This region, known as the *bet*, forms the wider channel of the river, and is partly inundated after heavy rains. It is intersected in every direction by minor water-courses or *nálas*, and, being composed of recent alluvium, is for the most part very fertile, though in scattered portions its fruitfulness is destroyed by the occurrence of a deleterious saline efflorescence. The Sutlej itself is navigable for boats of small burden, but its value as a water-way is inconsiderable in this portion of its course. A branch of the Sirhind Canal, recently constructed, enters the District from AMBALA (Umballa), and with its two principal branches, irrigates a large part of the western *parganás*. With this exception, irrigation is almost entirely confined to wells.

Ludhiána is singularly bare of trees. In the *bet* are a few well-grown *philkans*, while *pípals* and *banians* are to be found near the village tanks; but as a rule, only a few patches of scrubby *dhák* jungle break the general monotony of the sky-line. Attention, however, has been lately directed to this subject, and avenues of trees are now growing up along the main roads, which will doubtless do something to improve the appearance of this level and arid District. The only mineral product in Ludhiána is *kankar* or nodular limestone, which is quarried in many places for metalling the roads and for burning into lime.

History.—Though the present town of Ludhiána dates no further back than the 15th century, other cities in the District can claim a much greater antiquity. At Sunet, close to the modern town, are ruins of an extensive brick-built town, whose greatness had already passed away before the period of Muhammadan invasion; and the old Hindu city of Máchiwára is of still earlier date, being mentioned in the *Mahábhárata.* During the Musalmán epoch, the history of the District is bound up with that of the Ráis of Ráikot, a family of converted Rájputs, who received the country as a fief under the Sayyid dynasty, about the year 1445. The town of Ludhiána was founded in 1480 by two of the Lodhí race (then ruling at Delhi), from whom it derives its name. It was built in great part from the prehistoric bricks of Sunet, still bearing their rude trade-mark in the impression of three human fingers. On the overthrow of the Lodhí dynasty by Bábar, the

town passed into the hands of the Mughals, with whom it remained till 1760, when the Ráis of Ráikot took possession of it.

Throughout the palmy days of the Mughal Empire, the present District was included in the *Sarkár* (or Division) of Sirhind, in the Subáh (or Province) of Delhi, the western portions being leased to the Ráis of Ráikot, who, on the decadence of the empire, asserted their independence and formed a kingdom out of the territories held by them in this and the neighbouring District of Firozpur, the boundaries of which they extended. On the capture of Sirhind by the Sikhs in 1763, the western parts of the District fell into the hands of a number of petty Sikh chiefs. At the close of the 18th century, the Ráikot family was represented by a minor; and the Sikhs from the other side of the valley commenced a series of attacks upon their possessions. On one occasion, the famous adventurer, George Thomas, was called in to repel them. Finally, in 1806, Mahárájá Ranjít Singh crossed the Sutlej on his first expedition against the cis-Sutlej chiefs, and stripped the Ráis of their possessions, leaving only a couple of villages for the maintenance of two widows, who, with the exception of the minor chief, were the only remaining representatives of the ruling family.

In 1809, after Ranjít Singh's third invasion, a treaty was concluded between him and the British Government, by which his further conquests were stopped, although he was allowed to retain all territories acquired in his first two expeditions. At the same time, all the cis-Sutlej States that had not been absorbed were taken under British protection. In the same year (1809) a cantonment for British troops was placed at Ludhiána, compensation being made to the Rájá of Jhínd in whose possession it then was. In 1835, on the failure of the direct line of the Jhínd family, a tract of country around Ludhiána came into British possession by lapse, and this formed the nucleus of the present District.

On the conclusion of the first Sikh war in 1846, Ludhiána District assumed very nearly its present limits by the additions of territory annexed from the Lahore Government and its adherents on this side of the valley. Since the British occupation, the town has grown in wealth and population, but its history has been happily marked by few noticeable events of any sort. The cantonment was abandoned in 1854. During the Mutiny in 1857, an unsuccessful attempt was made by the Deputy Commissioner of the District, with the assistance of a small force, to stop the Jálandhar rebellious Sepoys on their way to Delhi. In 1872, an outbreak by a fanatical sect of Kukás attempted to disturb the peace of the country; but it was at once suppressed, and its leader, Rám Singh, deported from India, and sent as a State prisoner to British Burma. The more peaceful events to be chronicled are the opening of the Sind, Punjab, and Delhi Railway, and the opening of the

Sirhind Canal. Since the first Afghán war (1839-42), Ludhiána town has been the residence of the exiled royal family of Shah Shujá.

Population.—The first enumeration of the people was that of 1855, which returned the total number of inhabitants at 527,722, or 388 to the square mile. These figures, however, are suspected of being slightly in excess of the real numbers. A second Census was taken in 1868, over an area corresponding to the present District, which returned a total population of 585,547, or 426 per square mile. In 1881 the population had further increased to 618,835, namely, by 33,288, or 5·7 per cent., during the thirteen years ending 1881. The general results of the Census of 1881 may be briefly summarized as follows:—Area, 1375 square miles, with 6 towns and 853 villages, 104,231 houses, and 141,719 families. Total population, 618,835, namely, males 339,598, and females 279,237; proportion of males, 54·9 per cent. From these data the following averages can be obtained:—Persons per square mile, 450; villages per square mile, 0·62; persons per village, 725; houses per square mile, 98; persons per house, 5·9. Classified according to age, the Census returned—under 15 years, males 126,501, and females 100,091; total children, 226,592, or 36·6 per cent. of the population: 15 years and upwards, males 213,097, and females 179,146; total adults, 392,243, or 63·4 per cent.

As regards religious distinctions, Hindus number 275,240 persons, or 44·4 per cent.; Muhammadans, 213,954, or 34·6 per cent.; Sikhs, 127,143, or 20·6 per cent.; Jains, 2165; Christians, 322; and 'others,' 11. In the ethnical classification of the inhabitants, the Játs rank first both in number (222,665) and in agricultural importance; they form one-third of the whole population, and nearly two-thirds of the cultivating class. As a race, the Játs are patient, laborious, and enterprising. They are evenly distributed over the whole District, with the exception of the Sutlej valley, where they are comparatively few in number. In religion, the great majority of Játs are Hindus or Sikhs. The Rájputs come next, with 30,957 persons; they are almost exclusively Musalmáns. The Gújars number 30,759, and cluster thickly in the fertile strip by the bank of the Sutlej. Though they hold the richest portion of the District, they are here as elsewhere careless and improvident cultivators, and ill fitted for any but a predatory *régime.* Most of them are Musalmáns in creed. The Bráhmans muster strong, numbering 25,121, but their social importance is small. The mercantile classes are represented by 15,944 Khattris and 8722 Baniyás. There are also 2492 Kashmírís, chiefly confined to the town of Ludhiána, where they are employed in weaving shawls and woollen goods.

Town and Rural Population.—The District contained 4 towns

in 1881 with a population exceeding 5000—namely, LUDHIANA, 44,163; JAGRAON, 16,873; RAIKOT, 9219; and MACHIWARA, 5967. Two other places are returned as municipal towns, but with a less population than 5000, namely, KHANNA, 3988; and BAHLOLPUR, 2842. These six towns have an aggregate population of 83,052 persons, or 13·4 per cent. of the total District population. Of the 859 towns and villages in the District, 140 are returned as having less than two hundred inhabitants; 318 from two to five hundred; 243 from five hundred to a thousand; 119 from one to two thousand; 21 from two to three thousand; 4 from three to five thousand; and 4 between five and fifty thousand inhabitants. As regards occupation, the adult male population in 1881 was divided into the following seven classes:—(1) Professional and official class, 8978; (2) domestic and menial class, 8147; (3) commercial class, including bankers, merchants, traders, carriers, etc., 3031; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, including gardeners, 117,628; (5) industrial and manufacturing class, including artisans, 41,941; (6) indefinite and non-productive class, 22,646; (7) occupations not specified, 10,735. Panjábí is the language of the rural communities, but Urdu is spoken in the towns, and is generally understood by the peasantry.

Agriculture.—In spite of the unpromising appearance of its soil, Ludhiána is a flourishing agricultural District, a result which must be largely attributed to the untiring diligence of its Ját cultivators. Almost all the available land has been brought under the plough, and in many villages no waste ground is left for pasturage, the cattle being fed from cultivated produce. Of a total area in 1883-84 of 881,738 acres, 731,388 acres, or 82·9 per cent., were returned as under cultivation, of which 115,321 acres were irrigated, entirely by private enterprise. Of the remaining area, 11,085 acres were grazing land, 67,928 acres were still available for cultivation, and only 71,337 acres uncultivable waste. Cereals are chiefly grown in the western part of the District, while sugar-cane and cotton can be raised on the richer soil of the eastern *parganás*. The area under each principal crop in 1883-84 was estimated as follows:—*Rabí* or spring crops—wheat, 177,644 acres; barley, 23,895 acres; gram, 121,286 acres; *masur*, 386 acres; tobacco, 1057 acres. *Kharíf* or rain crops—*joár*, 75,393 acres; Indian corn, 53,914 acres; *moth*, 50,525 acres; rice, 2683 acres; *múng*, 5004 acres; *mash*, 3610 acres; cotton, 16,408 acres; hemp, 2853 acres; and sugar-cane, 14,109 acres. The *rabí* or spring harvest is ordinarily sown from the middle of September to the middle of November, and reaped from the middle of April to the middle of May. The *kharíf* or autumn crops, except sugar-cane and cotton which have special seasons, are sown in July and August, and reaped about the end of October. Until the opening of the Sirhind canal,

irrigation was confined to the leathern bucket; and the painstaking toil of the Játs in watering their arid fields is beyond all praise. Wells are held in shares by the villagers, each proprietor being permitted to draw water for a certain number of hours out of the twenty-four, in proportion to the share to which he is hereditarily entitled; and the labour of watering never ceases by day or by night. The use of manure is thoroughly appreciated. This account, however, refers only to the general upland plain. The *bet* or valley of the Sutlej is but poorly tilled by its Rájput proprietors; and the scattered British villages, which lie isolated among the native territory to the south, can obtain no water except at such depths below the surface as render it practically unavailable.

The Muhammadan portion of the peasantry are for the most part involved in debt, from which the Hindu Játs are, as a rule, free. Most of the villages are held in *pattidárí* tenure, the land having been originally distributed by shares, which are still easily recognisable. Upwards of 80 per cent. of the land is cultivated by the proprietors themselves. Rents vary with the nature and capabilities of the soil; land fit for sugar-cane or tobacco fetches £1, 4s. 8d. per acre, irrigated wheat lands bring in from 11s. to 18s., and dry lands from 7s. to 12s. Agricultural labourers are paid in grain; cash wages prevail in the towns, at the rate of from 4d. to 4½d. per diem. Prices in 1883 ruled as follows:—Wheat, 25 *sers* per rupee, or 4s. 6d. per cwt.; Indian corn, 38 *sers* per rupee, or 3s. per cwt.; *joár*, 40 *sers* per rupee, or 2s. 10d. per cwt.

Natural Calamities.—Ludhiána is comparatively free from the pressing danger of famine, though it suffers much from drought. The Settlement Officer is of opinion that no continuance of bad seasons would in any human probability necessitate an importation of grain. Prices may vary from very low rates to famine quotations, but the produce of the District would suffice for home consumption, even under the most trying circumstances. The town of Ludhiána is now one of the principal entrepôts for the grain trade of the Punjab, and the communications by rail, road, and river would be sufficient in the last resort to avert the extremity of famine.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—The exports of Ludhiána are chiefly confined to its raw material, including grain, cotton, wool, saltpetre, and indigo; the principal imports are English goods, spices, and the red madder dye, which are brought up the Sutlej to the *ghát* opposite Ludhiána. Besides the chief town, Jagráon, Ráikot, and Máchiwárá are centres of local trade. The total annual value of the exports for the whole District is estimated at £377,120; that of the imports at £365,552. The manufactures are by no means inconsiderable, including shawls, *pashmína* cloth, stockings, gloves, cotton goods, furniture, carriages, and fire-arms. Two branches of the weaving

industry are carried on—(1) Woollen, consisting for the most part in the manufacture of the fine cloth known as *pashmína*, Rámpur *chadárs*, etc.; (2) cotton, including *gabrún* (the 'Ludhiána cloth' of commerce), *khes*, *lungís*, and the like. These industries give employment to about three thousand hands, mostly working at single looms. There are several metalled roads in Ludhiána, including a portion of the Grand Trunk Road; total length of roads, 346 miles. The Sind, Punjab, and Delhi Railway passes through the centre of the District, for a distance of 36 miles, with stations at Khanna, Sánhewál, and Ludhiána. Its opening has given a great impetus to the grain trade, which is now concentrated in the town of Ludhiána. The Sutlej affords navigable water communication for 53 miles. The District has 6 printing-presses, the most important of which are at the American Presbyterian Mission and at the jail; the others belong to native proprietors.

Administration.—The administrative staff of Ludhiána comprises a Deputy Commissioner, with an Assistant and 2 extra-Assistants, a Judge of the Small Cause Court, and 3 *tahsíldárs*, besides the usual medical and constabulary officers. The total revenue in 1872–73 amounted to £103,795, of which £85,215, or about four-fifths, was contributed by the land-tax. In 1883–84, the total revenue was returned at £127,659, of which £92,700, or over three-fourths, was derived from the land-tax. The other principal items of revenue are stamps and local rates. The incidence of the land revenue per acre is heavier than in any other District of the Punjab, but the collections are made without difficulty.

For police purposes, the District is divided into 10 police circles (*thánás*). The imperial police force amounted in 1883 to 439 officers and men, besides a municipal establishment of 101 constables. These are supplemented by a force of 796 village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), who keep watch and ward in the villages of the District, and in all the towns except Ludhiána itself. The aggregate machinery for the protection of persons and property accordingly consisted of 1336 persons, being 1 policeman to every 1·03 square mile of the area and every 463 of the population. The number of persons brought to trial for all offences, great or small, committed in Ludhiána during the year 1883 was 2206, or 1 in every 280 inhabitants. In 1883, the daily average number of prisoners in the District jail was 285.

Education has made great advances during the last ten years. In 1873 there were 184 schools, of which 68 were in receipt of Government aid; the pupils numbered 6733, and the sum expended upon instruction from the public funds amounted to £1353. In 1883–84 the number of schools under Government inspection was 99, attended by 4966 pupils, exclusive of a reported number of 388 indigenous uninspected village schools in 1882–83, with 4364 pupils.

The District is sub-divided into 3 *tahsíls* and 19 *parganás*, owned by 83,067 shareholders. Municipalities have been established at Ludhiána, Jagráon, Ráikot, Máchiwárá, Khanna, and Bhilolpur. The aggregate revenue of these six towns amounted in 1871-72 to £3277. In 1883-84, the income of the above municipalities had increased to £8934, the average incidence of taxation being 2s. 1¾d. per head.

Medical Aspects.—In the upland portion of the District the atmosphere is dry and healthy, being free from the malarious effluvia which are so general a cause of febrile disorders on the plains of India. In the Sutlej valley, however, the network of watercourses renders the air extremely noxious after the floods of the rainy season, and deaths from fever are frequent, often assuming an epidemic form. The temperature varies from intense heat in the summer months to comparatively severe cold in December and January. In 1883, in the month of May, the mean temperature was returned at 90·3° F., the maximum being 114·3°, and the minimum 68·3°. In July, the mean temperature was 89·4°, with a maximum of 112·8°, and a minimum of 74·3°. In December, the mean temperature was 56·0°, with a maximum of 73·7°, and a minimum of 35·8°. The average annual rainfall for the twenty-five years ending in 1881 is returned at 28·17 inches. In 1883 the total rainfall was 39·6 inches, of which 26·5 inches fell between June and September. The total number of deaths recorded in 1883 amounted to 14,628, or 24 per thousand; of which 8487 were assigned to fever. Ophthalmia is of common occurrence, owing to the quantity of sand-dust with which the atmosphere is laden during the prevalence of dry winds. There are 3 Government charitable dispensaries in the District, from which 38,005 patients obtained assistance in 1883. [For further information regarding Ludhiána, see the *Gazetteer of Ludhiána District*, to be published by the authority of the Punjab Government in the course of the present year (1885); also *Report on the Revised Settlement of Ludhiána District*, by Mr. H. Davidson, C.S. (Lahore, 1859); the *Punjab Census Report* for 1881; and the several Administration and Departmental Reports from 1880 to 1884.]

Ludhiána.—Central *tahsíl* of Ludhiána District, Punjab, lying between 30° 45′ 30″ and 31° 1′ N. lat., and between 75° 40′ 30″ and 76° 12′ E. long. Area, 678 square miles. Population (1881) 307,559, namely, males 169,139, and females 138,420; average density of population, 453 persons per square mile. Classified according to religion, there were in 1881—Hindus, 130,478; Sikhs, 63,633; Muhammadans, 111,942; and 'others,' 1506. Total revenue, £37,497. The administrative staff, including the District officers, consists of a Deputy Commissioner, with a judicial assistant, 3 Assistant Commissioners, 1 *tahsíldár*, 2 *munsifs*, and 5 honorary magistrates. These officers pre-

side over 11 civil and 11 criminal courts. Number of police circles (*thánás*), 5; strength of regular police, 226 men; village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 399.

Ludhiána.—Town, municipality, and administrative head-quarters of Ludhiána District, Punjab. Lat. 30° 55′ 25″ N., long. 75° 53′ 30″ E. Situated on the high south bank of the Sutlej (Satlaj), 8 miles from the present bed of the river. Railway station on the Sind, Punjab, and Delhi Railway. The town stands on low ground, with some large open streets, but a greater number of small and tortuous alleys. The fort lies to the north of the town on an open and detached space, cleared after the Mutiny. Ludhiána town contained in 1868 a population of 39,983, which had increased by 1881 to 44,163, namely, males 24,685, and females 19,478. Muhammadans number 29,045; Hindus, 12,969; Sikhs, 1077; Jains, 752; and 'others,' 320. Number of houses, 7041. Municipal income (1875-76), £3193; (1883-84), £6675, or an average of 3s. per head.

Ludhiána was founded in 1480 by Yusaf and Nihang, princes of the Lodhí family, then reigning at Delhi. In 1760 it fell into the hands of the Ráis of Ráikot, who held it until the end of the last century, when Ranjít Singh expelled them, and made over the town to Rájá Bhág Singh of Jhínd. In 1809, General Ochterlony occupied it as Political Agent for the cis-Sutlej States, at first only as a temporary cantonment; but Government afterwards compensated the Rájá of Jhínd for the loss, and when the territory lapsed in 1834, retained the town as a military station. The troops were removed in 1854, but a small detachment continued to garrison the fort. The shrine of a Muhammadan saint, Shaikh Abdul Kádir-i-Jaláni, yearly attracts an important religious gathering, frequented by Hindus and Musalmáns alike.

The Muhammadan element preponderates strongly in the city, owing to the large number of Kashmírí and Pathán settlers, the latter being followers of the exiled royal family of Kábul, whose head, Sháhzáda Sháhpur, resides at Ludhiána as a pensioner of the British Government. The Kashmírís retain their hereditary skill as weavers of shawls and *pashmína* cloth, the value of the quantity exported in 1883 being estimated at £15,000. Shawls of the soft Rámpur wool, cotton cloths, scarves, turbans, furniture, and carriages also form large items in the thriving trade of the town. Since the opening of the railway, Ludhiána has become a great central grain mart, having extensive export transactions both with the north and south. The public buildings include the fort, District court-house, and Small Cause Court, railway station, *tahsíli*, police station, *dak* bungalow, *sarái*, jail, and Government charitable dispensary. The American Presbyterian Mission has a church and school, with a small colony of native Christians. The town bears a bad reputation for unhealthiness.

Lughási.—One of the Native States in Bundelkhand, under the Central India Agency and the Government of India. It is bounded on the south-west, south, and south-east by the Chhatarpur State, and on all other sides by Hamírpur District. When the British Government assumed supremacy in Bundelkhand, the ancestor of the present chief was found in possession of 11 villages, the title over which was confirmed to him on his executing the usual deed of allegiance. During the Mutiny in 1857, the chief, Sardár Singh, was loyal to the British Government, although half of the villages of Lughási were laid waste by the rebels in consequence of his fidelity. In reward for his services, Sardár Singh received the title of Ráo Bahádur, a *jágír* of £200 a year, a dress of honour, and the privilege of adoption, which was afterwards confirmed by *sanad*. The present chief, Ráo Bahádur Khet Singh, grandson of Sardár Singh, is a Bundela Hindu, and was born about 1856. Area of the State, 47·2 square miles, with 12 villages and 936 houses. Population (1881) 6159, namely, Hindus, 6010; Muhammadans, 132; Jains, 5; and aboriginal tribes, 12. Estimated revenue, £1000. The military force consists of 7 guns with 4 gunners, and 90 infantry. The State contains a good school and several roads, which were constructed during the time when it was under direct British management during the minority of the present chief. The town of Lughási, with a fort and good *bázár*, is situated on the route from Kálpi to Jabalpur (Jubbulpore), 86 miles south of the former, and 183 miles north of the latter. Population (1881) 2167.

Lugu.—Detached hill south of the central plateau of Hazáribágh District, Bengal. Lat. 23° 46′ 45″ N., long. 85° 44′ 30″ E. A natural fortress, forming a remarkable feature in this District. The northern face has a bold scarp of 2200 feet in height; and the highest point is 3203 feet above the sea.

Luká (or *Luba*).—River in Assam, which is fed by several streams rising in the hills forming the south-eastern corner of the Jaintia Hill and the south-eastern corner of North Cachar; after flowing south-west through the Jaintia Hills, it falls into the main stream of the Surma, near the market village of Mulághul in Sylhet District.

Lukman-jo-Tando.—Town in Khairpur State, Sind, Bombay Presidency.—*See* TANDO LUKMAN.

Lumbaiong.—Mountain range in the Khási Hills, Assam; highest peak, 4646 feet above sea-level.

Lunáwára.—Native State under the Political Agency of Rewá Kántha in the Province of Gujarát, Bombay Presidency. Bounded on the north by Dungarpur State, one of the Rájputána chiefships; on the east by Súnth and Kadána States of Rewá Kántha; on the south by the Godhra Sub-division of the British District of the Panch Maháls; and on the west by Edar State (Máhi Kántha) and Bálásinor (Rewá

Kántha). The State is situated between 22° 50′ and 23° 16′ N. lat., and between 73° 21′ and 73° 47′ E. long. Area, 388 square miles. Population (1872) 74,813; (1881) 75,450, occupying 1 town and 165 villages, containing 15,966 houses. Hindus numbered 71,870; Muhammadans, 3059; and 'others,' 521. Density of population, 194·4 persons per square mile. Lunáwára is irregular in shape, and has many outlying villages, the territory being much intermixed with that of Bálásinor and with the British Panch Maháls. The extreme length from north to south is 34 miles, and the extreme breadth from east to west 25 miles. About one-third of the State has been alienated, some lands having been granted in free gift, and others on service or other tenures. The soil is generally stony, the hills are low and scantily covered with timber. Irrigation is chiefly from wells; though there are many reservoirs, and the river Mahi flows through the terrritory. The climate is perhaps somewhat cooler than in the neighbouring parts of Gujarát. The prevailing disease is fever. Cereals and timber are the chief products. A well-frequented route, between Gujarát and Málwá, passes through Lunáwára.

Until 1825, the State was under the Political Agency of Máhi Kántha. The Chief is descended from the Rájput dynasty that ruled at Anhilwára Pátan, and his ancestors are said to have established themselves at Vírpur in 1225. In 1434, the family removed to Lunáwára, having in all probability been driven across the Mahi by the increasing power of the Muhammadan kings of Gujarát. Lunáwára was tributary both to the Gáekwár and to Sindhia; the rights of the latter ruler, guaranteed by the British Government in 1819, were transferred by him with the cession of the Panch Mahâls District in 1861. The present (1884) chief, Máhárána Wakhat Singhjí, a Hindu of the Solanki Rájput caste, was educated at the Rájkumár College at Rájkot, and was installed in August 1880. He is entitled to a salute of 9 guns, and has power to try his own subjects only for capital offences, without the express permission of the Political Agent. He enjoys an estimated gross yearly revenue of £16,216, and pays a tribute of £1800 jointly to the British Government and the Gáekwár of Baroda; military force, 204 men. The family hold no title authorizing adoption, but they follow the rule of primogeniture. There were, in 1882–83, 12 schools, with a total of 842 pupils. Something has been done towards abolishing transit duties.

Lunáwára.—Capital of Lunáwára State, Rewá Kántha, Bombay Presidency; a fortified town, situated in lat. 23° 8′ 30″ N., and long. 73° 39′ 30″ E., about 4 miles east of the confluence of the Mahi and Panám rivers, and a mile north of the latter stream. Population (1881) 9059, of whom 6488 were Hindus; 2248 Muhammadans; 320 Jains; and 3 'others.' The town was founded by Rána Bhím

Singhjí in 1434. According to the local legend, the chief one day went hunting across the Mahi, and, having become accidentally separated from his companions, found himself near the hut of a *sádhu* or ascetic. He presented himself before the recluse, saluted him reverentially, and remained standing until bidden to be seated. The *sádhu* was pleased with his demeanour, and, auguring a great future for him and his descendants, advised him to build a city in the forest. He told him to proceed in an easterly direction, and to mark the point where a hare would cross his path. The Ráná did as directed; a hare soon jumping out of a bush. The Ráná pursued and killed it with a spear, and marked the spot, which, it is said, is now within the precincts of the palace. The *sádhu* was a devotee of the god Luneswár, in honour of whom the Ráná called the town Lunáwára. The shrine of the god still stands outside the Darkúli gate. About the beginning of the 19th century the town was a flourishing centre for traffic between Málwá and central Gujarát. Its artisans were remarkable for their skill; and a brisk trade in arms and accoutrements went on. Jail, school, and dispensary. A road has been constructed to Shera, a British village, 15 miles north of Godhra, the terminus of the Godhra branch of the Bombay, Baroda, and Central India Railway. The produce of the State will find a ready market at Godhra.

Lushái (or *Kuki*) **Hills.**—A wild and imperfectly known tract of country on the north-east frontier of India, extending along the southern border of the Assam District of Cachar and the eastern border of the Bengal District of Chittagong. On the east, the Lushái Hills stretch away into the unexplored mountains of Independent Burma. This extensive region is occupied by a numerous family of tribes, who are known to us indifferently as Lusháis or Kukis. The name 'Kuki' is found in early records of the last century, and is still commonly applied to those colonies who have crossed the frontier and settled within British territory; but the appellation of 'Lushái' has won official recognition since the Lushái expedition of 1871–72. Among themselves these tribes are known by a variety of names, sometimes derived from that of their prominent chiefs. The most northerly tribe in the mountains between the State of Manipur and the Nagá Hills is known as the Quoireings. South of these are the Kupúí, who are subjects of Manipur. The mountains south of Cachar are occupied by the Lusháis proper, under three principal chiefs. On the frontier of Chittagong, the three best known clans are the Haulongs, the Sylus, and the Thanglowas. All these tribes are nomadic in their habits, and subject to successive waves of migration. It is said that at the present time the entire race of the Lusháis is being forced southwards into British territory, under pressure from the Soktis, who are advancing upon them from Independent Burma.

The principal characteristic common to all the Lusháis, in which they markedly differ from the other tribes on the Assam frontier, is their feudal organization under hereditary chiefs. Each village is under the military command of a chief or *lál*, who must come of a certain royal stock, but who exercises his authority by the voluntary submission of his subjects, as the number of his followers depends upon the success which attends his border forays. The chief exercises absolute power in the village; and his dignity and wealth are maintained by a large number of slaves, and by fixed contributions of labour from his free subjects. Like all other hill tribes, the Lusháis cultivate rice and a few more scanty crops on clearings in the jungle, according to the *júm* or nomadic system of agriculture; but their main occupation is hunting and warfare. Their domestic animals are the *gayál* or wild cow, the hill goat, and the pig. The *gayál* is not kept for agriculture or for milking, but only for slaughter at solemn sacrifices. Women are held in some sort of estimation, though they perform the whole burden of both in-door and out-door life. They are skilled at weaving a peculiar kind of rug or *púrí*, which forms to some extent an article of export. The other articles which the Lusháis bring down to the markets on the plains are caoutchouc, ivory, raw cotton, and beeswax, in exchange for which they take away rice, salt, tobacco, brass-ware, cloth, and silver. Both sexes wear a homespun sheet of cotton cloth, which is generally dyed blue. The women distend the lobes of their ears to an enormous extent with discs of wood or ivory. The average height of the men is about 5 feet 8 inches. They are described as well made and wonderfully muscular, but of a sulky and forbidding cast of countenance.

From the earliest times, the Lusháis have been notorious for their sanguinary raids into British territory, which are said to be instigated by their desire to obtain human heads for use at their funeral ceremonies. The Districts of Cachar, Sylhet, Tipperah, and Chittagong, and the States of Manipur and Hill Tipperah, have repeatedly suffered from these raids. The first of which we have record was in 1777, under the Governor-Generalship of Warren Hastings, when the Chief of Chittagong requested the presence of a detachment of sepoys 'for the protection of the inhabitants against the Kukis.' In 1849, a colony of Lusháis, settled within the frontier of Cachar, was attacked by their independent kinsmen, and forced to migrate northwards across the Barák river, where they now live as peaceable British subjects, and are known as 'Old Kukis.' In 1860, a raid was made upon the District of Tipperah, in which 186 Bengálí villagers were massacred and 100 carried away into captivity. Retributive expeditions, consisting of small forces of sepoys, were repeatedly sent to punish these raids; but, owing to the difficult nature of the country

and the fugitive tactics of the enemy, no permanent advantage was gained.

At last, the disturbed state of the frontier attracted the attention of the supreme Government. A military demonstration in 1869 had entirely failed in its object. Relying upon their belief in the impracticable character of their native country, the Lusháis made a series of simultaneous attacks in January 1871 upon British villages in Cachar, Sylhet, and Tipperah, as well as on the independent State of Manipur. In Cachar a party of Haulongs surprised the tea-garden of Alexandrapur. The tea-planter was killed, and his daughter, Mary Winchester, was carried off as a hostage. The outpost of Monierkhál repelled a number of attacks, lasting through two days, made by a second body of Lusháis from the eastern tribes, who finally retired with a large amount of plunder, including many coolies and guns. Lord Mayo, who was then Viceroy, resolved to make a vigorous effort to stop these inroads once and for all.

The details of a punitory expedition were organized under the immediate control of Lord Napier, the Commander-in-Chief. The little army was composed of 2 Gurkhá battalions, 2 regiments of Punjab and 2 of Bengal Native infantry, with 2 companies of Sappers and Miners, and a strong detachment of the Pesháwar Mountain Battery. This was divided into two columns. One was to advance from Cachar under General Bourchier, with Mr. Edgar as Political Agent; the other, commanded by General Brownlow, and accompanied by Captain Lewin as Political Officer, was to operate from Chittagong against the Haulong tribes. The Cachar column started from Silchár in November 1871, and entered the Lushái Hills at Tipái-mukh. From that point it advanced for about 110 miles southward through country previously unexplored, encountering considerable resistance from the enemy. Finally, the Lushái chiefs accepted the terms imposed upon them. The return march was effected without firing a shot, and Tipái-mukh was regained in the beginning of March 1872. The operations of the Chittagong column were equally successful. It penetrated northwards for about 83 miles. The surveying staff that accompanied it triangulated an area of 3000 square miles, and completed the connection between the Districts of Chittagong and Cachar. Fifteen powerful chiefs tendered their personal submission; Mary Winchester was recovered, and upwards of 100 British subjects were liberated from captivity. The actual loss in fighting was small, but a large number both of soldiers and camp followers died from cholera.

Since the date of this expedition, the Lusháis have, on the whole, remained quiet along the entire frontier. At the same time active measures have been taken to open commercial intercourse between them and the people of the plains. On the Cachar side, 3 *bázárs* have

been established—at Tipái-mukh, Lushái-hát, and Jhaluachará—each at the point where a river has its exit from the hills. Trade by barter is briskly carried on, and the Lushái chiefs frequently send down friendly messages. It has been estimated that the annual value of the business done at these three marts is about £10,000. On the Chittagong frontier, similar *bázárs* have been opened at Demágíri, Kasalang, and Rángámátí. Although the Lushái expedition of 1871–72 was undoubtedly a sharp measure of retribution, its policy has been entirely justified by the result.

In November 1883, disturbances occurred on the Chittagong Hills frontier, two boats containing sepoys being attacked on the Rángámátí river above Barkal, in which a sepoy and a servant boy were shot, and a second sepoy drowned. The boats were plundered of money and clothes, and the raiders retreated, pursued by men of a friendly village. The raid is supposed to have been committed by the Shendus, instigated thereto by the Sylus, with the object of throwing suspicion on their enemies, the Haulongs. The information, however, was too vague to justify retaliatory measures; and no further action was taken beyond strengthening the outposts, and distributing a few muskets with ammunition to the friendly villages to enable them to defend themselves against the hostile tribes. A *darbar* or public reception and a *melá* or fair, held by the Deputy Commissioner of the Chittagong Hill Tracts at Rángámátí in January 1884, proved very successful, although the two principal Haulong chiefs refused to appear. Rumours of intended raids along the Assam and Chittagong frontier were current till the end of January 1884; but on the frontier police being reinforced, the excitement gradually died out, and no disturbances have occurred since. [For further information regarding the Lushái and Kuki tribes, see *The Hill Tracts of Chittagong and the Dwellers therein*, by Captain Lewin (Calcutta, 1869), and *A Narrative of the Lushái Expedition*, by Lieut. Woodthorpe.]

Lushington Falls.—Picturesque falls in North Kánara District, Bombay Presidency.—*See* UNCHHALL.

Lyng-ker-dem.—Mountain range in the District of the Khási and Jaintiá Hills, Assam. Elevation of highest peak above sea-level, 5000 feet.

M

Macharda.—Village on the outskirts of the Dalása Hills, Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency, 40 miles south-west of Rájkot. In December 1867, Captain Hebbert was mortally wounded here when leading an attack against the Vágher outlaws led by Deo Mánik. Captain La

Touche also was shot dead during the assault. The two officers lie buried in a small enclosure near Macharda. A pillar is erected in memory of the fight on Tobar hill, a small hill in the lands of the village. A tablet in Rájkot church also commemorates the event. Population of village (1881) 340.

Machári.—Village in Alwar (Ulwur) State, Rájputána; situated in lat. 27° 15′ N., and long. 76° 42′ E.; 76 miles south-west of Mathura (Muttra), 3 north-east of Rájgarh. Machári was the residence of Sher Sháh's famous *wazir* Hemu, and was only captured by Akbar's troops after a fierce resistance. It was occupied by Ráo Anand Singh, son of Ráo Kalián Singh, the ancestor of the Alwar family, about 1671; and was the head-quarters of the family until the acquisition of the fort of Alwar in 1775. Machári contained in 1878, 2352 inhabitants, inhabiting 593 houses.

Machávaram (*Matchavaram*, *Matsavaram*).—Town in Amalápúram *táluk*, Godávari District, Madras Presidency. Population (1881) 4637, inhabiting 824 houses. Situated in the Godávari delta, 4 miles north-north-west from Amalápúram.

Máchhgáon.—Port in Cuttack District, Bengal; situated in lat. 19° 58′ N., and long. 86° 21′ E.; 9 miles from the mouth of the Deví estuary. A rising town, with extensive rice trade. Sea-going brigs cannot get up to the port, but float in with the tide as far as possible, and are laden from country boats.

Máchhgáon Canal.—One of the canals of the Orissa system (*see* CUTTACK DISTRICT), connecting Cuttack town with Máchhgáon at the mouth of the DEVI river. It starts from the Táldandá Canal at Birbátí (lat. 20° 28′ N., long. 86° 0′ 30″ E.), and was opened in 1871 as far as Singápur, where it crosses the branch of the Kátjurí, which falls into the Mahánadi at Jayapur. It joins the Deví river in lat. 20° 3′ N., and long. 86° 17′ E. Total length of the main canal, 53 miles.

Machhlígáon.—Village in Gonda District, Oudh. Population, chiefly Hindus. A famous temple dedicated to Karhuanáth Mahádeo is situated near the village, and a considerable fair is held every year on the occasion of the *Sivarátri* festival.

Machhlíshahr.—South-western *tahsíl* of Jaunpur District, North-Western Provinces, lying for the most part south of the river Gúmtí, and consisting of *parganás* Ghiswá, Múngra, Bádsháhpur, and Garwára. The *tahsíl* is triangular in shape, and is intersected by the Sai and Bhadohi rivers in a south and south-easterly direction, while the Barna forms its southern boundary. The principal line of communication is the metalled road from Allahábád to Jaunpur, besides a number of unmetalled cross-country roads. Rice forms the principal crop in the low-lying land of Múngra and Ghiswá *parganás*. Population (1872)

192,113; (1881) 238,759, namely, males 120,797, and females 117,962. Total increase in nine years, 46,646, or 24·2 per cent. Classified according to religion, there were in 1881—Hindus, 219,953; Muhammadans, 18,800; and Christians, 6. Of the 606 inhabited villages, 435 contain less than five hundred inhabitants; and two towns, MACHHLISHAHR and MUNGRA BADSHAHPUR, have upwards of five thousand inhabitants. Of the total adult population, 1552 are returned as landholders, 68,286 as agriculturists, and 7150 as engaged in occupations other than agriculture. Total area, according to the latest official statement (1881), 353 square miles, of which 344·9 square miles are assessed for Government revenue. Of the assessed area, 195·3 square miles are returned as cultivated, 55·2 square miles as cultivable, and 94·4 square miles as uncultivable waste. Land revenue, £28,239, or including local rates and cesses levied on land, £32,706. Amount of rent, including cesses, paid by cultivators, £45,487. In 1883 the *tahsíl* contained 1 court, 5 police stations, with a regular police of 81 men, and a village watch or rural police of 511 *chaukídárs*.

Machhlíshahr.—Town in Jaunpur District, North-Western Provinces, and head-quarters of Machhlíshahr *tahsíl*. Situated on the metalled road to Allahábád, 18 miles west-south-west of Jaunpur town, in lat. 25° 41′ 10″ N., and long. 82° 27′ 16″ E. The ancient name of the town was Ghiswá, derived from the name of the Bhar chief Ghisu, who is said to have ruled the *parganá*, and founded the town. It is situated in the midst of a low-lying damp tract of country, and its present name of Machhlíshahr, or 'City of Fishes,' was given to it owing to its liability to floods during the rainy season. The original inhabitants of the town were Bhars, who were expelled during the Rájput invasions. The Rájputs were ousted in their turn by the Musalmáns, and the place has ever since been a Muhammadan town. Population (1872) 8715; (1881) 9200, namely, Muhammadans, 4762; Hindus, 4432; and Christians, 6. Area of town site, 522 acres. The town was formerly of considerably more importance than at present. It was at one time noted for its salt and cloth manufactures; but it has long been on the decline, and now presents the appearance of a quiet agricultural centre whose days of prosperity have gone by. Cultivation extends up to the walls, and there are a number of fine trees and groves. For police and sanitary purposes, a small house-tax is raised, amounting in 1882–83 to £197. Besides the ordinary sub-divisional courts and offices, the town contains an Anglo-vernacular school, imperial post-office, first-class police station, charitable dispensary, and a military encamping ground.

Machhreta.—*Parganá* in Misrikh *tahsíl*, Sítápur District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Rámkot, on the east by the Saráyan river, on the south by Gundlamau, and on the west by Kurauna and Misrikh.

Population (1869) 37,677; (1881) 40,672, namely, males 21,400, and females 19,272. Area, 108 square miles, or 68,990 acres, of which 41,434 acres are cultivated, 18,524 acres are cultivable, 544 acres *muáfi*, and 8488 acres uncultivable waste; average incidence of land-tax, 2s. 0⅞d. per acre of total area, 2s. 4¾d. per acre of assessed area, and 3s. 5½d. per acre of cultivated area. The *parganá* was first constituted by Rájá Todar Mall, in whose time the lands were held by an Ahban Rájá, Kesri Singh by name. He was deposed by Akbar, and his estates conferred on two Káyasths, whose father had been *diwán* to the Ahban chieftain, and had been put to death by him. On their death, various petty *zamíndárs* possessed themselves of the estate. Out of 125 villages comprising the *parganá*, 99 are held by Rájputs, 10 by Káyasths, 6½ by Bráhmans, 2 by a Bairági, and 7½ by a Muhammadan *tálukdár*.

Machhreta.—Town in Misrikh *tahsíl*, Sítápur District, Oudh; situated on the road from Khairábád to Nímkhár, on the Gúmtí, 16 miles south of Sítápur town. Lat. 27° 25′ N., long. 80° 41′ E. Population (1869) 4578; (1881) 4177, namely, 2358 Hindus and 1819 Muhammadans. Daily *bázár;* manufactures of coarse cloth and sugar.

Machídá.—Estate or *zamíndári* attached to Sambalpur District, Central Provinces; 25 miles north-west of Sambalpur town. Area, 10 square miles, with 9 villages, and 278 occupied houses. Population (1881) 1073, principally Gonds and Kultás. Machídá, the chief village (lat. 21° 49′ N., long. 83° 38′ E.), has a school, with about 30 pupils. The family of the *zamíndár* is of Gond descent, and obtained the estate a century ago. Formerly turbulent and lawless, they have now settled down to peaceful pursuits. The estate is free of jungle, and the principal crops are rice, cotton, and oil-seeds.

Machiwára.—Town and municipality in Samrála *tahsíl*, Ludhiána District, Punjab. Lat. 30° 55′ N., long. 76° 14′ 30″ E. Situated on the high southern bank of the Sutlej, 23 miles south of Ludhiána town. Population (1868) 6062; (1881) 5967, namely, Muhammadans, 3710; Hindus, 1948; Sikhs, 151; and Jains, 158. Number of houses, 963. Ancient Hindu city, mentioned in the *Mahábhárata*, but now commercially unimportant. Two very early mosques, several Hindu shrines, and a very sacred Sikh *Gurudwára*. Considerable centre of sugar manufacture. Police station; school-house. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £288; in 1883-84, £306, or 1s. 2½d. per head of population within municipal limits.

Mackeson, Fort.—Small frontier fort in Pesháwar District, Punjab; situated at the foot of the Khattak range, 3½ miles from the entrance of the Kohát pass. It consists of a pentagon, an inner keep and a horn work, with accommodation for 200 infantry and 300 cavalry. The fort is no longer garrisoned by troops, and the question of dismantling

it is now (1884) under the consideration of Government. In the meantime it is held by a force of border police and frontier militia. Lat. 33° 45′ 45″ N., long. 71° 36′ 15″ E.

Madahpurá. — Sub-division of Bhágalpur District, Bengal, lying between 25° 24′ and 26° 7′ N. lat., and between 86° 38′ 45″ and 87° 9′ E. long. Area, 872 square miles; villages and towns, 900; houses, 67,548. Population (1871) 391,086; (1881) 398,006, namely, males 198,472, and females 199,534. Classified according to religion, there were in 1881—Hindus, 372,009; Muhammadans, 25,973; and Christians, 24. Proportion of males in total population, 49·7 per cent.; average density of population, 456 persons per square mile; number of villages per square mile, 1·03; persons per village, 442; houses per square mile, 79·5; inmates per house, 5·9. The Sub-division comprises the 2 police circles (*thánás*) of Kishenganj and Madahpurá. In 1883 there was 1 magisterial and 1 civil and revenue court, a regular police of 38 men, and a rural force 1843 strong. This Sub-division is liable to disastrous floods caused by inundations from the Kúsi river.

Madahpurá. — Town in Bhágalpur District, Bengal, and head-quarters of Madahpurá Sub-division; situated in lat. 25° 55′ 40″ N., and long. 86° 49′ 51″ E., on the right bank of the river Parwána, on the high-road to Supúl, and about 52 miles from Bhágalpur town. Population (1881) 3602. Contains the usual Government sub-divisional buildings, *sarái* or native hotel, small *bázár*, Government-aided school, dispensary, post-office, excise office; police force, 26 men. The events chronicled in the popular ballad of Lúrik, the deified cowherd, occurred for the most part in this neighbourhood. For an account of the legend, see *Statistical Account of Bengal*, vol. xiv. pp. 87–89.

Madaksíra. — *Táluk* in Anantápur District, Madras Presidency. Population (1881) 55,113, namely, 27,650 males and 27,463 females; number of houses, 12,512. Hindus numbered 53,309; Muhammadans, 1675; Christian, 1; and 'others,' 128. The area is 451 square miles, the number of villages, 159. In the south the country is hilly and rocky. Towards the west it is level, and nearly every available acre has been taken up for cultivation. The soil is fertile; and the water-supply bountiful. The *táluk* contains 2 criminal courts; police stations (*thánás*), 5; regular police, 44 men. Revenue (1883), £7227.

Madaksíra.—Town in Anantápur District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 13° 56′ 30″ N., long. 77° 18′ 40″ E. Population (1881) 4489; number of houses, 1299. Formerly the stronghold of a powerful *pálegár* of Vijayanagar; seized by Morári Ráo in 1741, and by Haidar Alí in 1769. The fort was built on a rock above the town, which was itself walled and protected by a ditch.

Madanapalli. — *Táluk* in Cuddapah (Kadapa) District, Madras Presidency. Area, 593 square miles. Population (1881) 106,215, namely, 53,900 males and 52,315 females; villages, 103; houses, 24,854. Hindus number 98,735; Muhammadans, 7173; Christians, 306; and 'others,' 1. Madanapalli *táluk* occupies the extreme south-west corner of Cuddapah District. The country is hilly, with the exception of the south-western part where it meets the Mysore plateau. The soil is, for the most part, good. The *táluk* contains 1 civil and 3 criminal courts; police stations (*thánás*), 9; regular police, 90 men. Land revenue, £15,368.

Madanapalli (*'Cupid's hamlet'*). — Town in Cuddapah District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 13° 33′ 37″ N., long. 78° 32′ 45″ E.; pleasantly situated on the Cuddapah upland, 2500 feet above sea-level, and consisting of 3 hamlets (Madanapalligadda, Madanapalli, and Batalanuttigadda). Population with hamlets (1881) 7106, namely, 3513 males and 3593 females; number of houses, 1856. Hindus numbered 5801; Muhammadans, 1176; Christians, 128; and 'others,' 1. The central portion, or Madanapalli hamlet, according to the Census, contains 5700 persons. The head-quarters of Madanapalli *táluk*, of the Sub-Collector and of the assistant superintendent of police. Good dispensary, hospital, post-office, and a Government and mission school. The town and *táluk* suffered severely in the famine of 1876-78.

Madanganj.—Town in Dacca District, Bengal; on the Lakhmia river, opposite NARAYANGANJ TOWN, of which it in reality forms a part, having been established by the merchants of that place, who were pressed for space in Náráyanganj. Large and increasing trade in country produce. Total population of Náráyanganj, with Madanganj (1872), 10,911; (1881) 12,508 (males 7558, and females 4950), namely, Hindus, 6324; Muhammadans, 6160; and 'others,' 24. The united towns form a single municipality of the first class. Municipal income of Náráyanganj with Madanganj (1883-84), £2096; average incidence of taxation, 3s. 1⅝d.

Madanpur. — Estate or *zamíndári* in Mungelí *tahsíl*, Bilráspur District, Central Provinces. Area, 25 square miles. Population (1881) 7616 (males 3733, and females 3883), residing in 38 villages, which are intermixed with the villages of Mungelí *tahsíl*. Chief crop, rice; but wheat, gram, etc. are also grown. The *zamíndár* is a Ráj-Gond, and the grant dates from 1812.

Madapollam (*Madhaváyapalem*).—Decayed weaving and dyeing village, a suburb of Narsápur, Godávari District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 16° 26′ N., long. 81° 44′ 20″ E. Population (1881) 1506, inhabiting 278 houses. Madapollam was an important 'Lodge' or manufacturing village and entrepôt for cotton goods during the commercial period of the East India Company, and gave its name to a class of

goods still known in the market as Madapollams. Madapollam was attached to the Masulipatam Factory.—*See* NARSAPUR.

Mádárí.—Small river in the District of the Twenty-four Parganás, Bengal, with the grain marts of Chaital and Bánsrá on its banks.

Madaría (or *Golá*).—Town in Bánsgáon *tahsíl*, Gorakhpur District, North-Western Provinces; situated in lat. 26° 20′ 50″ N., long. 83° 23′ 40″ E., 33 miles south of Gorakhpur town, on what was once the bank of the Kuána river, and is now the bank of the Gogra (Ghágra). A rising and flourishing town and trade centre, with a population in 1872 of 5147, and in 1881 of 7193, namely, Hindus, 6466; Muhammadans, 725; and Christians, 2. Area of town site, 74 acres. Some fine groves which surround the town, and the river which flows past it, give the place an appearance from a distance which a closer inspection dispels. Madaría consists of one narrow, straggling street of shops running parallel to the Gogra, and separated from it by a thick mass of mud houses, through which a network of narrow lanes run down to the river-side. Several large masonry houses, however, line the river bank, and the traders have of late years shown much rivalry in erecting fine temples. For police and conservancy purposes, a small house-tax is raised. The town is the head-quarters of a Sub-division of the Opium Department, and contains a first-class police station, imperial post-office, and a good elementary school.

Mádáripur (*Mándáripur*).—Sub-division of Farídpur District, Bengal. Area, 979 square miles; villages and towns, 1515; houses, 88,450. Population (1872) 631,504; (1881) 689,704, namely, males 338,484, and females 351,220. Muhammadans numbered 396,355; Hindus, 291,231; and Christians, 2118. Average density of population, 704·5 persons per square mile; villages per square mile, 1·55; houses per square mile, 91·56; persons per village, 455; persons per house, 7·8. The Sub-division comprises the *thánás* or police circles of Mádáripur, Gopálganj, Kotwálípára, Palang, and Sibchar. It contained in 1883, 3 civil and 4 magisterial courts, with a regular police force of 109 officers and men and a village watch or rural constabulary of 1209 men.

Mádáripur.—River mart and municipality in Farídpur District, Bengal, at the confluence of the Ariál Khán and Kumár rivers, and head-quarters of Mádáripur Sub-division. Population (1881) 12,298, namely, Hindus, 8181, and Muhammadans, 4117. Municipal income (1883–84), £653; incidence of taxation, 9¼d. per head of population within municipal limits. Large import trade in salt, rice, piece-goods, and timber, and still larger export trade in jute, sugar, oil-seeds, betel-nuts, and onions.

Madavarvilagam.—Town in Srivillipatur *táluk*, Tinnevelli District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 9° 30′ N., long. 77° 38′ 20″ E. The population which in 1871 was returned at 9955, living in 2267 houses, was

at the Census of 1881 returned at 1392 only, inhabiting 333 houses. It is a suburb of Srivillipatur town, and contains a fine pagoda and a tower dedicated to Siva.

Maddikera.—Town in Pattikonda *táluk*, Karnúl (Kurnool) District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 15° 15′ N., long. 77° 28′ E. Population (1881) 6181; number of houses, 1368. Hindus numbered 5440; Muhammadans, 654; Christians, 77; and 'others,' 10. Situated at the source of the Hindri river, about 3 miles north-east of Nancharla station, and about 11 miles north of Guntakal junction station, on the north-west line of the Madras Railway.

Maddúr.—An old *táluk*, Mysore District, Mysore State. In 1875, the greater part was added to MANDYA *táluk*, and the remainder to MALVALLI *táluk*.

Maddúr.—Village in Mysore District, Mysore State. Lat. 12° 35′ 30″ N., long. 77° 5′ 20″ E.; on the right bank of the Shimshá river, 40 miles by road north-east of Mysore town. Population (1881) 2117. Old town, with many temples and tanks. Said to have been originally named Arjunapura by the Pándyan prince Arjuna when on a pilgrimage. One of the Hoysala Ballála kings is related to have assigned the town as *inám* or rent-free grant to the Bráhmans or priestly caste. The fort was dismantled by Lord Cornwallis in 1791, and the place has never recovered from the ruin caused during the war with Tipú. The situation is now unhealthy. Until 1875 it was the head-quarters of Maddúr *táluk*, since abolished and divided between Mandya and Malvalli *táluks*. A brick bridge of 7 arches was constructed across the Shimshá in 1850, over which the Bangalore-Mysore Railway now runs. On this railway Maddúr is a station.

Made.—Village in Coorg, at the Sampáji *ghát* on the Merkára-Mangalore road. Population (1881) 2194. Head-quarters of the Párpattigár of Kaggodalnád, with public bungalow. Several coffee estates in the neighbourhood.

Madgiri.—*Táluk* in Túmkúr District, Mysore State. Area, 437 square miles, of which 110 are cultivated. Population (1881) 59,729, namely, 30,270 males and 29,459 females; of these 58,176 were Hindus, 1528 Muhammadans, and 25 Christians. Land revenue (1881–82), £11,578, or 4s. per cultivated acre. A fertile tract, water being everywhere easily obtained beneath the surface by means of *talpargis* or spring heads. The rice, known as *chinnada saláki* or golden stick, is reckoned the best in Mysore, and the breed of cattle is also fine. The Pinákini river runs through the open country to the north; nearly parallel, to the west, flow its affluents, the Jayamangali and the Kumadvati. The *táluk* contains 2 criminal courts; police stations, 10; regular police, 104 men; village watch (*chaukidárs*), 332. Total revenue (1883), £18,685.

Madgiri (*'Honey Hill'*).—Town in Túmkúr District, Mysore State; 24 miles north of Túmkúr town, at the north base of the MADGIRI-DRUG, and surrounded by hills. Lat. 13° 39′ N., long. 77° 16′ E. Population (1881) 2846. Old town, which has grown up under the protection of the fortifications on the neighbouring hill. It prospered greatly under both Haidar Alí and his son Tipú, but was twice sacked by the Maráthás in 1774 and 1791. There are now manufactures of iron, steel, cotton cloth, and blankets; and a brisk trade in brass, copper, and silver utensils. Rice is largely exported. Two large temples of Venkatramanaswámi and Malleswara are conspicuous objects; the latter is gracefully ornamented under the eaves with carved figures of pigeons life-size. Head-quarters of the Madgiri *táluk*. Sub-judge's court and post-office.

Madgiri-drúg.—Hill in Túmkúr District, Mysore State; 3935 feet above sea-level, crowned with old fortifications commanding the town of MADGIRI. Lat. 13° 39′ 30″ N., long. 77° 14′ 40″ E. On the summit are springs of water, with large granaries excavated in the rock. The present formidable works were erected by Haidar Alí, in substitution for the mud walls of a *pálegár* or petty chieftain.

Mádgula (*Madgole*).—Town in Vizagapatam District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 17° 55′ N., long. 82° 51′ 30″ E. Population (1881) 7612; number of houses, 1639. Hindus numbered 7441; Muhammadans, 168; Christian, 1; and 'others,' 2. Situated at the foot of the *gháts* which separate the low country from Jaipur, about 300 feet above sea-level. Mádgula is the chief town of an ancient hill *zamíndárí* or estate lying partly above and partly below the *gháts*, paying a *peshkash* (tribute) of £3010 to Government. Mádgula estate contained in 1871, 139 villages and 56,512 inhabitants; the Census of 1881 did not return the population of the estate separately. The estate is partly under the 'Agency Administration' of Jaipur (Jeypore).

Mádha.—Sub-division of Sholápur District, Bombay Presidency; situated between lat. 17° 38′ and 18° 10′ N., and long. 75° 13′ and 75° 46′ E. Area, 619 square miles. Population (1881) 67,961, namely, 34,973 males and 32,988 females, dwelling in 89 villages. Hindus number 63,096; Muhammadans, 3338; and 'others,' 1527. Mádha is an undulating plain, irregular in shape; the tops of all the higher ridges, though covered with yellow stunted grass, are bare of trees, and have a barren soil. The watershed crosses the Sub-division in the direction of its greatest length from north-west to south-east; and the streams flow eastward into the Sina and southward into the Bhimá. Setting aside the Ashti lake, situated about 15 miles south-west of Mádha town, the land is chiefly watered from wells. The climate is dry, and hot winds prevail from March to May. Of the 619 square miles, 613 had been surveyed up to 1883. Lands of alienated villages occupy 22 square miles.

The rest consists of 347,325 acres of cultivable land; 11,866 acres of uncultivable land; 2303 acres of forests; and 20,343 acres of village sites, roads, rivers, and streams. Included in the 347,325 acres of cultivable land, are 16,746 acres of alienated lands in Government villages. In 1882–83, the total number of holdings was 6159, with an average area of about 46 acres. In 1881–82, of 251,602 acres, the whole area held for tillage, 47,929 acres were fallow or under grass. Of the remaining 178,234 acres, 4077 were twice cropped. Of the 182,311 acres under tillage, grain crops occupied 153,533 acres; pulses, 8080 acres; oil-seeds, 18,080 acres; fibres, 813 acres; and miscellaneous crops, 1805 acres. Land revenue (1881), £12,112. In 1883, the Sub-division contained 1 civil and 2 criminal courts; police circles (*thánás*), 4; regular police, 45 men; village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 195.

Mádha.—Chief town of the Mádha Sub-division, Sholápur District, Bombay Presidency; situated in lat. 18° 4′ N., and long. 75° 35′ E., about 40 miles north-west of Sholápur town. Mádha is a station on the south-east line of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway. Population (1881) 4078. Sub-judge's court, post-office, fort, weekly market on Tuesday, and annual fair in September–October. The fort is now used to accommodate the sub-divisional offices.

Madhan.—Petty State in the Punjab, subordinate to Keunthál. Area, 13 square miles; estimated population, 1000; revenue £160. The chief (Thákur) is a Rájput, his family having originally come from Bilåspur.

Madhapur.—Town in Porbandar State, Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency. Population (1881) 2667. An ancient town, with a temple to Krishna, who is said, after his rape of Rukmini, to have celebrated his marriage with the goddess here. The port is merely a roadstead, and its trade is decreasing. Exports (1881–82), £1163; imports, £1111.

Mádhepur (*Mádhupur*).—Town in Darbhangah District, Bengal; situated in lat. 26° 10′ 20″ N., and long. 86° 25′ 1″ E., at the junction of the roads from Barhampur, Harsinghpur, Gopálpur *ghát*, and Darbhangah. Population (1872) 7301; (1881) 5054, namely, Hindus, 3716; and Muhammadans, 1338. Area of town site, 2905 acres. Police station and good *bázár*; the Nawáda indigo factory is in the immediate neighbourhood. Mádhepur is admirably suited for trade with all parts of Tirhút and Purniah, and will probably become an important commercial town.

Madheswaranmalai.—Town in Collegal *táluk*, Coimbatore District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 12° 2′ N., long. 77° 35′ E. A place of pilgrimage much resorted to during the Diwáli (Dípvali) festival, and on new moon days, especially the day of the new moon, in the Támil month of Tye (January–February). The population, which in 1871

was 7522, living in 1199 houses, was, at the Census of 1881, returned at only 968 in 201 houses.

Mádhopur (or *Siwai Mádhopur*).—Town in Jaipur State, Rájputána. Situated about 43 miles north of Jaipur city. Population (1881) 14,075, namely, 6980 males and 7095 females. Hindus number 10,169; Muhammadans, 2952; 'others,' 954. Two annual fairs are held; one in May, and the other in September, each attended by about 12,000 visitors.

Mádhubaní.—Sub-division of Darbhangah District, Bengal, lying between 26° 1′ and 26° 39′ 30″ N. lat., and between 85° 52′ and 86° 46′ E. long. Area, 1349 square miles; villages, 2926; occupied houses, 132,287. Population (1881), males 448,237, and females 459,268; total, 907,505. Classified according to religion, there were—Hindus, 806,408; Muhammadans, 101,063; Christians, 20; and Santáls, 14. Density of population, 673 persons per square mile; villages per square mile, 2·17; persons per village, 661; houses per square mile, 102; persons per house, 6·8. This Sub-division comprises the 4 police circles (*thánás*) of Mádhubaní, Benipatí, Khajaulí, and Phulpárá. In 1883 it contained 1 civil and 2 criminal courts, a force of 113 policemen and 1587 *chaukídárs* or village watchmen.

Mádhubaní.—Town in Darbhangah District, Bengal, and headquarters of Mádhubaní Sub-division; situated in lat. 26° 21′ 20″ N., and long. 86° 7′ E., about 16 miles north-east of Darbhangah town. Good *bázár*, with daily markets for grain, vegetables, and cloth. Situated on one of the main roads from the south of the District to Nepál. Population (1872) 8569; (1881) 11,911, namely, males 6131, and females 5780. Hindus number 9945, and Muhammadans 1966. Area of town site, 960 acres. Communications excellent; dispensary and hospital; registration office; *sarái*. Municipal revenue (1883–84), £972, of which £509 was derived from taxation; average incidence of taxation, 9¾d. per head.

Mádhugarh.—North-western *tahsíl* of Jaláun District, North-Western Provinces, lying in the angle between the Pahúj and the Jumna (Jamuná) rivers; much intersected by ravines, but producing excellent crops of sugar-cane. Area, 282 square miles, of which 203 are cultivated. Population (1872) 89,165; (1881) 97,457 (males 51,935, and females 45,522), showing an increase in nine years of 8292, or 9·3 per cent. Classified according to religion, there were in 1881—Hindus, 94,472; Muhammadans, 2977; and Jains, 8. Of the 137 villages comprising the *tahsíl*, 97 contained less than five hundred inhabitants; 26 from five hundred to a thousand; 12 from one to two thousand; 1 from two to three thousand; and 1 from ten to fifteen thousand inhabitants. The estates of the Rájás of Rámpura, Jagamanpur, and Gopálpur are situated along the western boundary of

the *tahsíl.* They have not been subjected to interior survey; their Rájás pay no Government revenue or cesses, maintain their own police, and have the sole administration of their estates, which are, however, subject to the general control of the Deputy-Commissioner of the District. Land revenue, £13,981; total Government revenue, £15,652; rental paid by cultivators, £30,210; incidence of Government revenue, 1s. 6½d. per acre. Mádhugarh *tahsíl* contains 4 civil and 4 criminal courts, 2 of them presided over by honorary magistrates. Number of police circles (*thánás*), 6; strength of regular police, 58 men; village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 181.

Mádhugarh (known also as *Ránijú*).—Town in Jaláun District, North-Western Provinces, and head-quarters of Mádhugarh *tahsíl*, 27 miles from Urái town, the District head-quarters. Population (1872) 2718; (1881) 3438, namely, males 1900, and females 1538. *Tahsíli* and police station. A small house-tax is levied for the conservancy and watch and ward of the town.

Mádhumatí.—River of Bengal.—*See* BALESWAR.

Mádhupur. — Village in Pathánkot *tahsíl*, Gurdáspur District, Punjab. Lat. 32° 22′ N., long. 75° 39′ E. Population (1868) 2675. Not separately returned in the Census of 1881. The head-works of the BARI DOAB CANAL are situated opposite this village.

Mádhupur.—Extensive jungle, known also as the 'Garh Gazálí,' stretching northwards from the northern part of Dacca into the heart of Maimansingh District, Bengal, almost as far as the Brahmaputra. A slightly elevated tract, averaging about 40 feet above the plain, with small hills nowhere exceeding 100 feet in height. Covered with dense jungle and grasses; very unhealthy, and abounding in wild beasts, but penetrated by the high-road to Maimansingh. The *sál* (Shorea robusta) grows throughout the tract, and supplies timber and charcoal. The open parts make good pasture grounds during the cold weather; and a considerable trade is carried on in beeswax and honey. A large area has been planted or brought under cultivation, principally with cotton and *boro* rice, by two public-spirited *zamíndárs* of Dacca. The soil, a red ferruginous clay, was formerly smelted for iron; but this industry ceased to yield a livelihood on the introduction of the English metal, and has now been abandoned.

Madhupur.—Town in Darbhangah District, Bengal.—*See* MADHEPUR.

Madhwápur.—Village and *bázár* in Darbhangah District, Bengal; situated on the Nepál frontier, on the river Dháús. A busy trade is carried on with Nepál. Population (1881) 1692, of whom 1517 were Hindus and 175 Muhammadans.

Madhyárjunam (otherwise called *Tiruvadamarudur*).—Town in Combaconum *táluk*, Tanjore District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 10°

57′ N., long. 79° 30′ E. Six miles east of Combaconum, and twenty-nine from Tanjore city. Containing, with its suburbs, a population (1881) of 2506 persons, including 646 houses. Notable for its temple, and as the residence of some of the Tanjore ex-royal family. Sub-magistrate's court, and a station on the main line of the South Indian Railway.

Madnágarh.—Fine reservoir in Chándá District, Central Provinces; situated in lat. 20° 35′ N., and long. 79° 32′ E., 11 miles east-north-east of Chimur, under the western slopes of the Perzágarh range. Supplied by a hill stream, diverted into it by a long embankment, at the end of which are the remains of a fort. The village is deserted; but the neighbouring population cultivate the lands.

END OF VOLUME VIII.

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